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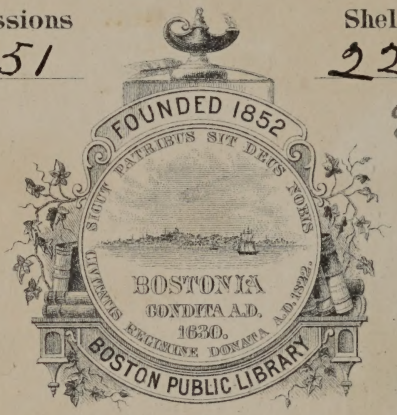

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THE

American Universal Geography:

OR A

VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE

22863

OF ALL THE

EMPIRES, KINGDOMS, STATES AND REPUBLICKS

IN THE KNOWN WORLD,

AND OF THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA IN PARTICULAR.

IN TWO PARTS.

THE FIRST PART

Treats of Astronomical Geography, and other useful preliminaries to the study of Geography, in an enlarged and improved Introduction...of the Western or American Continent...of its Discovery...its Aboriginal Inhabitants, and whence they came...its Divisions...but more particularly of the United States of America, generally and individually...of their Situation, Extent, Civil Divisions, Rivers, Lakes, Climate, Mountains, Soil, Produce, Natural History, Commerce, Manufactures, Population, Character, Curiosities, Waters, Springs, Mines and Minerals, Military Strength, Government, Islands, History of the War, and the succeeding Events...Closing with a View of the British, Spanish, French, Portuguese, and other Dominions, on the Continent and in the West-Indies.

THE SECOND PART

Describes at large, and from the latest and best Authorities, the present State, in respect to the above-mentioned particulars, of the Eastern Continent and its Islands...as divided into Europe, Asia and Africa...and subdivided into Empires, Kingdoms and Republicks.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

An improved Catalogue of Names of Places, and their Geographical Situation, alphabetically arranged:
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GENERAL ATLAS OF THE WORLD,

CONTAINING (IN A SEPARATE VOLUME) SIXTY-THREE MAPS, AND COMPRISING ALL THE NEW DISCOVERIES TO THE PRESENT TIME.

BY JEDIDIAH MORSE, D.D. F.A.A. S.H.S.
Minister of the Congregational Church in Charlestown.

PART SECOND.

CONTAINING AN IMPROVED GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION OF THE

EASTERN CONTINENT AND ISLANDS.

PUBLISHED ACCORDING TO ACT OF CONGRESS.

Fourth Edition of this Volume.

BOSTON:

PRINTED BY J. T. BUCKINGHAM, FOR THOMAS & ANDREWS.

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Sept. 1805.

David M. Balfour,
9657
Mar. 13, 1855.

ADVERTISEMENT.

THIS SECOND PART of the UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY, embracing the EASTERN CONTINENT and adjacent Islands, with AUSTRAL ASIA and POLYNESIA, (divisions adopted from Mr. PINKERTON) was originally compiled in 1793, from the latest and most approved works of geography then extant. It has since been diligently and faithfully improved from the many geographical publications, travels, voyages and statistical works, with which the literary world has been enriched, within the last fifteen years. The present Edition has been particularly improved from the learned and excellent work of Mr. PINKERTON, and from the Gazetteer of the Eastern Continent, published in 1802, by the author and his co-partner, the Rev. E. PARISH.

Charlestown, August, 1805.

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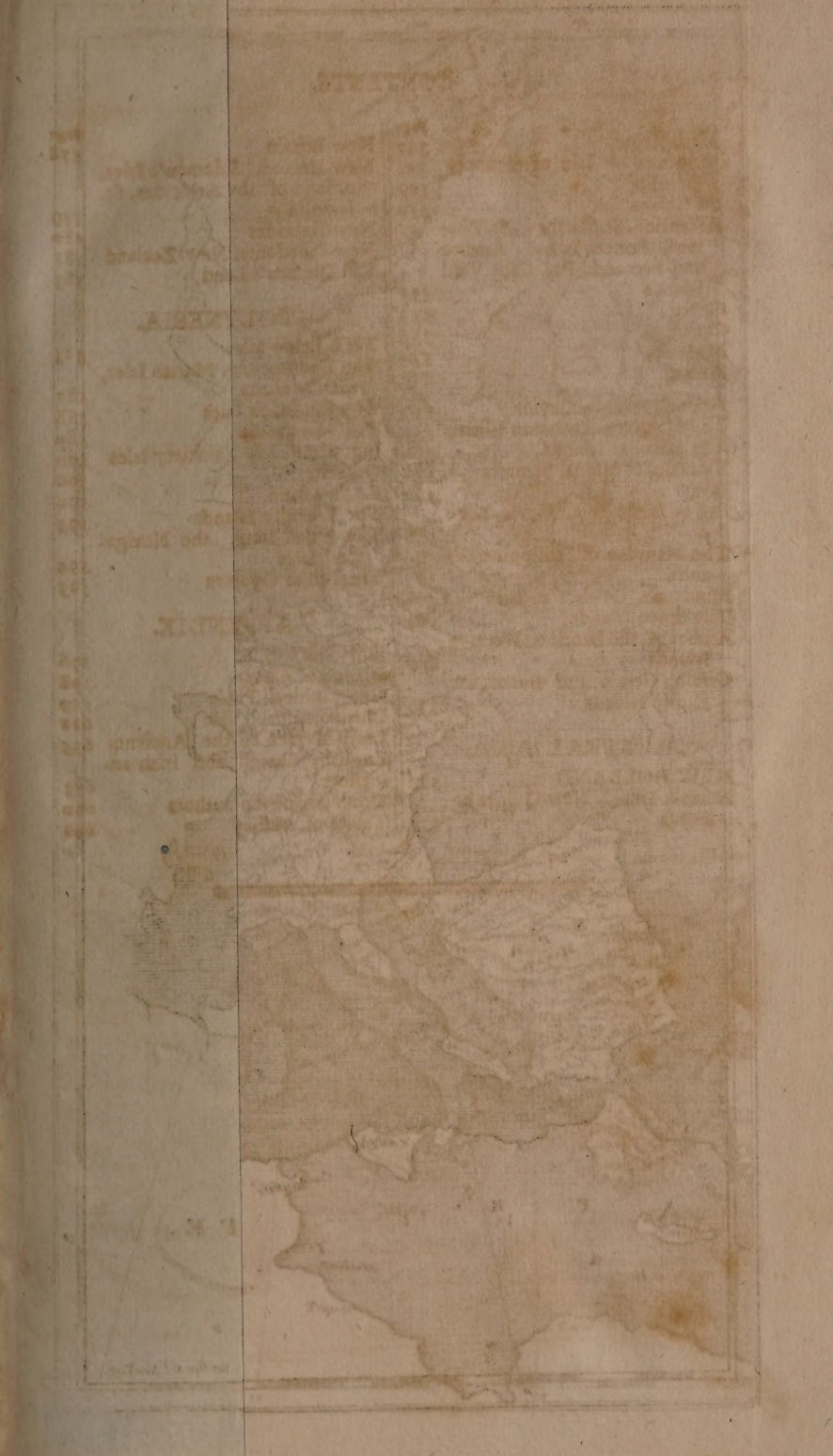

For Morses Geography, published by Thomas S. Andrews, 1805.

THE

American Universal Geography.

PART SECOND.

THE EASTERN CONTINENT, EMBRACING EUROPE, ASIA AND AFRICA, WITH THEIR ADJACENT ISLANDS.

EUROPE.

SITUATION, EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES.

THIS smallest, but most important grand division of the earth, is situated between the 10th degree W. and the 65th degree E. longitude from London; and between the 36th and 72d degree of N. latitude: containing 2,627,574 English geographical square miles, 60 miles to a degree.* Its greatest length from E. to W. is reckoned by some, at 3,000 miles; by others, at 3,600.† Its greatest breadth from N. to S. is 2,500 miles. It is bounded north by the Frozen Ocean; east, by Asia; south by the Mediterranean sea, which separates it from Africa; west by the Atlantick Ocean.

Natural Productions.] The greatest part of Europe being situated above the 45th degree of north latitude, and even its most southern provinces being far distant from the torrid zone, the species of organized bodies are much less numerous in Europe than in other parts of the globe. Thus, for instance, upon an equal number of square miles, the number of species of quadrupeds in Europe is to the number of them in Asia, as 1 to $2\frac{1}{7}$, to that in America, as 1 to $2\frac{1}{5}$, and to that in Africa as 1 to 10, and the number of the vegetable species in the other three divisions of the globe is greatly superior to that in Europe. But nature has enriched the European continent with every species of minerals; diamonds and platina, perhaps, excepted. Gold, the first of metals, is not found in Europe in such abundance, as in the other quarters of the globe. However, as the European nations have the skill of making the best use of their natural productions, and have taken care to transplant into their own soil as many

* This is Zimmermann's estimate, who takes the medium of the estimates of several of the most celebrated Geographers in Europe, as Busching, Kitchen, Templeman, Bergman, and Crome. Pinkerton estimates the length at 3,300 miles; the breadth at 2350; the square miles at about 2,500,000.

† Reichard, who extends Europe to the 75th degree E. longitude.

of the foreign productions as their nature will permit, Europe, upon the whole, must be allowed to be one of the richest parts of the globe. [*Zimmermann.*]

Arctick Ocean.] To the north of Europe is the Arctick Ocean, the empire of everlasting winter, from whose borders float mountains of ice, crowned with spires of every hue, which astonish the boldest mariner and bid defiance to his progress. Yet let not the undevout mind suppose this region useless in creation, or an argument against the wisdom of the Creator. Here is one of the largest stores of supply for the human race. Here the herring find a safe home, and multiply their countless millions. About the middle of winter they emerge from this retreat. They advance in two divisions. One turns west to America, and proceeds south from Labrador along the shores of Nova-Scotia, New-England and the southern states, ascending all those brooks and rivers, which have their sources in ponds of still water, to the great advantage of the inhabitants. The other division proceeds to Europe to traverse its various shores. A third squadron passes through Behrings straits, to supply the poor people of Kamschatka. [*Pinkerton*]

Languages.] The languages of Europe are derived from the six following, viz. the Greek, Latin, Teutonick or Old German, the Celtick, Sclavonick and Gothick.

Religion.] The christian religion prevails through Europe, Turkey excepted, and even there, at least one half of the inhabitants are attached to the Greek church. Wherever the christian faith has penetrated, learning, industry and civilization have followed. [*Pinkerton.*]

The chief divisions of the christian religion are the Greek, Roman Catholick and Protestant. The Greek religion is established only in Russia, and tolerated in some parts of the Austrian dominions, in Poland, and chiefly in Turkey: Subdivisions of the Greek church are the Armenian and Nestorian church. Of the Roman Catholick church, Jansenism is a subdivision. The Protestant religion is subdivided into the Lutheran and Calvinist, or reformed religion. Of the former the Episcopal church of England and Ireland is a branch, of the latter the Presbyterian church of Scotland. There are, besides, many sects adapted to the different degrees of theological knowledge, or to the different warmth of imagination of those that embrace them. The principal of these sects are Arminians, Mennonists, Socinians, Arians, Moravian Brethren, Quakers and Methodists. The proportion of the surface of the countries, in which the Protestant religion is established, to those in which the Roman Catholick religion prevails, is nearly as 3 to 4. The Roman Catholicks are estimated at 90,000,000; the number of Protestants at 24,000,000. Some few of the Laplanders, and others who inhabit the extreme northern parts of Europe, are Pagans. [*Zimmermann.*]

Government.] The governments of Europe may be considered either as despotick monarchies, as France, Russia and Turkey; or absolute monarchies, as Spain, Denmark, &c.; or limited monarchies, as Great-Britain, Germany, &c. There are some portions of Europe which still retain the name and forms of republicks, but none now enjoy the independence, privileges and blessings of that species of government.

PUBLICK REVENUE OF THE PRINCIPAL STATES IN EUROPE.

	£ *Sterling.*	
1. Great-Britain,	14,500,000	
2. Austria,	12,400,000	(112 millions of florins)
3. France,	18,000,000	(Necker Compte Rendu)
4. Spain,	5,000,000	of Old Spain alone.
5. Russia,	5,800,000	
6. Turkey,	5,000,000	
7. Prussia,	3,600,000	
8. Portugal,	1,800,000	
9. Sicily,	1,400,000	medium
10. Holland,	4,000,000	
11. Sweden,	1,300,000	
12. Venice,	1,000,000	
13. Denmark,	1,000,000	
14. Electorate of Saxony,	1,100,000	
15. Electorate of Hanover,	900,000	
16. Joint Elec. of Pal. & Bavaria,	1,100,000	
17. Sardinia,	1,000,000	

The preceding statement in round numbers is intended merely to give the reader a general idea of the relative state of European finances in 1787. It would, however, be very improper to judge of the power of states merely by their finances, because in some countries, the value of money is much higher than in others: Thus, for instance, the whole Russian army costs the state less than 2,000,000 of rubles. Russia, Denmark, England, Sweden and others have paper money. [*Zimmermann.*]

LAND FORCES OF THE EUROPEAN STATES IN THE YEAR 1783.

France,	300,000	(1794) 1,200,000
Austria,	282,000	
Russia (450,000 in all) in Europe,	290,000	
Prussia,	224,000	
Turkey (210,000 in all) but in Europe only	170,000	
Spain,	60,000	including militia.
Denmark,	72,000	
Great-Britain,	58,000	including militia.*
Sweden,	50,000	
Sardinia,	40,000	
Holland,	37,000	
Naples and Sicily,	30,000	
Electorate of Saxony,	26,000	
Portugal,	20,000	
Electorate of Bavaria and the Palatinate,	24,000	
Hesse Cassel,	15,000	
Hanover,	20,000	
Poland,	15,000	
Venice,	8,000	
Wurtemberg,	6,000	
The Ecclesiastical Estate,	5,000	
Tuscany,	3,000	

* In 1804 they amounted to 700,000.

Having stated here the forces of the principal states only, passing over a considerable part of Germany, Italy and Switzerland, we may calculate the armies of all the countries in Europe to amount to 2,000,000 men ;* so that supposing 140,000,000 of inhabitants in Europe, no more than one in 70 of the whole population are soldiers. The present military establishment of every kingdom in a time of general peace,† differs somewhat from the above statement. France, Austria and Prussia have by far the most formidable armies : as to Russia, the immense extent of its provinces can never allow an army of more than 120,000 or 130,000 men to act against an enemy ; and as to the Turkish forces, they have been, till lately, inferior to any other well disciplined army. The different proportions, in different countries, between the population and the number of soldiers, is not unworthy of observation. There are in Germany nearly 500,000 soldiers ; consequently one in 52 of the whole population are engaged in the military profession : In Italy, on the contrary, even supposing the standing armies of that country to amount to 120,000 men, this number makes only one in 132 of the whole population, which amounts to 16,000,000. [*Zimmermann.*]

NAVAL FORCES.

NUMBER OF SHIPS OF THE LINE, FRIGATES, CUTTERS, SLOOPS, &c.

	In the years	1787	1783	1795	1800
1. England,		465	393	430	648
2. France,		266		337	
3. Spain,		130			
4. Holland,		95		90	
5. Sweden,		85			
6. Denmark,		60			[60,
7. Turkey,		50	commonly reckoned		
8. Russia,		63			
9. Sardinia,		32			
10. Venice,		30			
11. Sicily,		25			
12. Portugal,		24			
	Total	1325			

* The number of regular troops in the different countries in Europe, according to M. Reichard, (1793) exclusive of militia, was 1,700,000.

† Zimmermann, from whom is derived the information relative to the revenue and land and naval forces of Europe, published his work in 1787, in a time of general peace through Europe. Great changes have taken place, in each of these particulars, since the commencement of the present war, in which so many of the nations have been engaged. But as it is impossible, in the present fluctuating state of things, to ascertain what these changes have been, we leave accounts in most cases as they stood in 1787.

Several of these numbers, taken from the naval lists in the year 1783, are at present reduced. This gives, however, some idea of the respective naval strength of the different powers of Europe. Some of them, as for instance, Denmark, Sweden, Sicily, Portugal, having had no war for many years past, and having, for that reason, built but a small number of ships, are capable of maintaining a much larger navy than they now have; and they would, undoubtedly, increase their naval forces very considerably in case of a war. [*Zimmermann.*] During the war with France, Great-Britain had taken from France, Spain and Holland, previous to the year 1800, 455 armed vessels, 77 of which were of the line.

Population, &c.] The following Table exhibits the extent and population, real and comparative, of the several grand divisions of Europe, in 1787. Any known alterations from this statement, will be noticed in their proper places.

TABLE.

Grand divisions of Europe.	Areas of these states in square miles.	Population.	No. of inhabitants in each square mile.
Russia (in Europe)	1,104,976	20,000,000	20
Sweden,	209,392	3,000,000	14
Denmark,	182,400	2,200,000	12
Poland and Lithuania,	160,800	8,500,000	53
Germany,	192,000	26,000,000	135
The kingdom of Prussia alone,	22,144	1,500,000	67
France,	163,200	24,800,000	152
Holland,	10,000	2,360,000	236
Great Britain and Ireland,	100,928	15,314,138	151
Switzerland,	15,296	1,800,000 1,200,000	117
Gallizia and Lodomiria,	20,480	B. Rutner, 2,800,000	136
Italy,	90,000	16,000,000	180
Portugal,	27,376	2,000,000	65
Hungary and Transylvania,	92,112	5,170,000	56
Spain,	148,448	10,000,000	68
Turkey,	182,562	7,000,000	38
England and Wales alone,	50,000	9,706,378	194
Austrian Monarchy,	180,496	19,611,000	109

General Remarks.] The greatest part of Europe is under the influence of a climate, which being tempered with a moderate degree of cold, forms a race of men strong, bold, active and ingenious; forced by necessity to make the best use they can of the smaller share of vegetable and animal treasures, which their soil produces. In hotter and richer parts of the globe, the profusion of spontaneous, nat-

ural productions, and the heat of the atmosphere, relax the bodily and mental powers of the inhabitants, check their spirit of enterprise, and confine the compass of their thought. The torrid zone has never been able, nor is ever likely, to boast of a Newton, a Cæsar, or a Frederick.

Great ridges of mountains, the chief of which are the Alps, the Appenines, the Pyrenean, the Carpathian, Sudetick and Saxon mountains, occasion not only a great variety in the climate, but pour out many large and navigable rivers, and contain every species of minerals. It is likewise no small convenience and encouragement to commerce, that Europe is intersected by several seas, and that it is contiguous to the Atlantick Ocean.

The seeming natural disadvantages of Europe have, by dint of the ingenuity and perseverance of the inhabitants, given rise to numberless arts and sciences, which have been carried to a great degree of perfection. Asia and Africa have immense deserts, such as are no where to be found in Europe; deserts of many thousand square miles, which are partly owing to natural and insuperable disadvantages of situation, and partly to want of industry, which is at once the cause and effect of desolation. America is yet in its infancy, so that the sciences of Europe far excel those of the other quarters of the globe, excepting those parts into which European knowledge and civilization have been transplanted. Europe may also boast of the greatest number of useful inventions, and institutions to preserve and to propogate acquired knowledge. [*Zimmermann.*] In useful inventions, the inhabitants of the United States have lately become rivals of those in the old world. Europe had in 1797 about 130 universities; and, inclusive of these, 1227 publick establishments for cultivating the arts and sciences. [*Reichard.*]

The states of Europe, considered with respect to their intrinsick power and influence abroad, may be divided into three classes; Great-Britain, France, Austria, Prussia and Russia, belong to the first: Secondary powers are those of Turkey, Spain, Holland, Denmark, Sweden and Sardinia: The third class comprehends Portugal, Naples and Sicily, Poland, the Joint Electorate of the Palatinate and Bavaria, the Electorate of Saxony, Switzerland and Venice.* For the last three centuries the cabinets of Europe have endeavoured to keep up a constant equilibrium between the different states. France and England endeavoured to preserve the balance of power in the west; Prussia, Austria and Russia, that in the east of Europe; Russia has, by its late extraordinary increase of power, gained a great ascendency in the north, after a successful struggle with the rival power of Sweden. [*Zimmermann.*] France and England, the former by land, the latter by sea, have of late acquired equal ascendency in the west.

Europe has reduced to its subjection a great part of the other quarters of the world. It governs all that part of the American continent which has been peopled from Europe, except the *United States*. It posesses almost all the islands which have been discovered in the three great oceans, the Pacifick, the Atlantick and the Indian. It

* Considerable changes been effected in this arrangement, by the recent wars in Europe. Poland and Venice are no longer independent governments.

gives laws to more than half Asia, to the greater part of the coast of Africa, and to several interior countries of considerable extent, so that nearly half of the inhabited world bows to Europe.

[*Reichard.*]

Exclusive of the British isles, Europe contains the following principal islands :

	Islands.	Chief Towns	Subject to
In the Northern Ocean.	Iceland — —	Skalholt,	Denmark.
Baltick Sea.	Zealand, Funen, Alsen, Falster, Langland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm,	——	Denmark
	Gothland, Aland, Rugen,	——	Sweden
	Osel, Dagho, — —	——	Russia
	Usedom, Wollin, — —	——	Prussia
Mediterranean Sea.	Ivica, — — — —	Ivica,	Spain
	Majorca, — — —	Majorca,	Ditto
	Minorca, — — —	PortMahon	Ditto*
	Corsica, — — —	Bastia,	France†
	Sardinia, — — —	Cagliari.	K. of Sard.
	Sicily, — — — —	Palermo,	K. of 2 Sic.
Adriatick or Gulf Venice.	Malta, — — —	Malta,	G. Brit.‡
	Lusena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia,	— —	Venice.
Archipelago and Levant Seas.	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mytelene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece,	— —	Turkey

DANISH DOMINIONS.

I BEGIN the account of his Danish majesty's dominions, with the most northerly places, and divide them into four parts : 1st. W. and E. Greenland, Iceland, and the islands in the Atlantick Ocean ; 2d. Norway ; 3d. Denmark Proper ; and 4th. his German territories.

* Minorca was taken from Spain, by Gen. Stanhope, 1708, and confirmed to Great Britain, by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, but was besieged and taken by the Spaniards, Feb. 15, 1782 and confirmed to them by the definitive Treaty of Peace signed at Paris Sept. 3, 1783.

† This island was surrendered to the English in 1794, and the people formally elected George III. King of Great Britain, for their king. This and other islands in the Mediterranean have frequently changed owners, during the present European war.

‡ This island was captured by the British in the summer of 1800.

The dimensions of these countries, except East and West-Greenland, may be seen in the following

TABLE.

Denmark.		Sq. Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Denmark Prop.	North Jutland,	9,600	155	98	Wyburg.
	South Jutland, or Sleswick,	2,115	70	63	Sleswick.
Islands at the entrance of the Baltick Sea.	Zealand,	1,935	60	60	Copenhagen.
	Funen,	768	38	32	Odensee.
	Falstar and Langland,	220	27	12	Nikoping. Naxkaw.
	Femeren,	50	13	8	Borge.
	Alsen,	54	15	6	Sonderborge.
	Mona,	39	14	5	Stege.
	Bornholm,	160	20	12	Rostcomby.
In the north Sea,	Iceland island,	46,000	435	185	Skalholt.
	Norway,	71,400	750	170	Bergen.
	Danish Lapland	28,400	285	172	Wardhuys.
Westphalia,	Oldenburg,	1,260	62	32	Oldenburg.
Lower Saxony,	Stormar,	1,000	52	32	Glukstadt.
	Danish Holstein				
	Total	163001			

WEST-GREENLAND

IS attached to the American Continent, and is described in the first volume of this work, which see.

EAST-GREENLAND.

THE most northerly part of his Danish majesty's dominions, or as others call it, New-Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 10 and 11 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. Though now claimed by Denmark, it was discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; and is supposed to be a continuation of Old-Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen from the height and ruggedness of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are found here, and the fish and fowl are said to forsake the coast in winter. The Russians of Archangel have formed, within the last 30 years, settlements for hunting in several places of the island of Spitzbergen. The Aurora Borealis and the northern lights reflected from the snow, enable them to pursue the chace during the long winter nights of those gloomy regions; and they take a great number of sea lions, which serve them for food. There is a whale fishery, chiefly prosecuted by

the Dutch and some British vessels, on its coast. It has two harbours, one called South-Haven, the other Maurice Bay. The inland parts are uninhabited.

ICELAND.

THIS island, which receives its name from the great masses of ice that are seen near it, lies between 63 and 67 deg. N. lat. and between 11 and 27 deg. W. long. It extends four hundred miles in length, and a hundred and sixty in breadth, containing about 46,000 square miles. In April 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland observed something risen and flaming in the sea south of Grinbourg, at eight miles distance from the rocks des Oiseaux, which afterwards was found to be a new island. It has since disappeared.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners and Customs.] It appears that a Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, settled in Iceland in the ninth century. They found there inhabitants who were christians, and whom they called *Papas*. It is said, that the Norwegians also found among them Irish books, bells and crosiers: and it is conjectured, that the people who were there, when the Norwegians arrived in the island, originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but they were at last obliged to submit to the kings of Norway, and afterwards became subject, together with Norway, to the kings of Denmark. They were at first governed by an admiral, who was sent there every year to make the necessary regulations: But that mode has been changed many years, and a governour appointed, who is styled *Stiftsamtmann*, and who constantly resides in the country.

The number of the inhabitants of Iceland is computed at 50,000, about 1 to every square mile. It has been much more populous in former times, but great numbers have been destroyed by contagious diseases. The plague carried off many thousands from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have also been depopulated by famine, occasioned chiefly by the Greenland floating ice, which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the grass from growing, and puts an entire stop to their fishing. The small pox has likewise been very fatal here; in the years 1707 and 1708, that disease destroyed 16,000 persons.

The Icelanders in general are middle sized and well made, though not very strong. They are an honest, hospitable, well meaning people, moderately industrious, and very faithful and obliging. Theft is seldom heard of among them. Their chief employment is fishing and taking care of their cattle. On the coasts the men employ their time in fishing both winter and summer; and the women prepare the fish, and sew and spin. The men also prepare leather; work at several mechanical trades; and some few work in gold and silver. They likewise manufacture a coarse kind of cloth, which they call wadmal. They have an uncommonly strong attachment to their native country, and think themselves no where else so happy. An Icelander, there-

fore, seldom settles in Copenhagen, though the most advantageous conditions should be offered him. Their dispositions are serious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never pass a river or any other dangerous place, without previously taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection; and they always give thanks for their preservation when they have passed the danger. When they meet together, their chief pastime consists in reading their history. The master of the house begins, and the rest continue in their turns. They are famous for playing at chess; and one of their pastimes consists in reciting verses. Sometimes a man and woman take one another by the hand, and by turns sing stanzas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occasionally join in chorus. The dress of the Icelanders is neat, cleanly, and suited to their climate. On their fingers the women wear gold, silver, or brass rings. The poorer women dress in the coarse cloth, called wadmal, and always in black: Those who are in better circumstances wear broadcloths, with silver ornaments gilt. The houses of the Icelanders are generally bad. In some places they are built of drift wood, and in others they are raised of lava, with moss stuffed between the lava. Their roofs are covered with sods laid over rafters, or sometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and more expensive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but lay their fuel on the earth, between three stones; and the smoke issues from a square hole in the roof. Their food is dried fish, sour butter, which they consider as a great dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is so scarce among them, that there is hardly any peasant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

Religion.] The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran. The churches on the east, south and west quarters of the island, are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Skalholt, (the capital of the island) and those of the north quarter are subject to the bishop of Hoolum. The island is divided into 189 parishes, of which 127 belong to the See of Skalholt, and 62 to that of Hoolum. All the ministers are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly salary of 4 or 500 rix dollars from the king, exclusive of what they have from their congregations.

Language.] The language of Iceland is the same as that formerly spoken in Sweden, Denmark and Norway, and has been preserved in great purity.

Learning and learned Men.] It is said that poetry formerly flourished in Iceland. But the art of writing was not much in use till after the year 1000; though the Runick characters were known in that country before that period, and most probably brought thither from Norway. After the reception of the christian religion, the Latin characters were immediately adopted, as the Runick alphabet, which consists of only sixteen letters, was found insufficient. The first Icelandick Bishop, Isleif, founded a school at Skalholt; and soon after they founded four other schools, in which the youth were instructed in the Latin tongue, divinity, and some parts of theoretick philosophy. From the introduction of the christian religion here, till the year 1264, when Iceland became subject to Norway, it was one of the

few countries in Europe, and the only one in the north, in which the sciences were valued and cultivated.

But this period of time seems to have produced more learned men in Iceland than any period since. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had considerable knowledge in moral philosophy, natural history and astronomy. Most of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th and 14th centuries; and some of them have been printed. Sir Joseph Banks presented one hundred and sixty-two Icelandick manuscripts to the British Museum. That gentleman visited Iceland in 1772, accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil and Dr. Lind. Dr. Van Troil, who published an account of their voyage, observes, that he found more knowledge among the lower class in Iceland, than is to be met with in most other places; that many of them could repeat the works of some of their poets by heart; and that a peasant was seldom to be found, who, beside being well instructed in the principles of religion, was not also acquainted with the history of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional histories, that being one of their principal amusements.

A printing press was established in Iceland, about the year 1530. The Icelandick code of laws appeared in 1578, and the Icelandick bible in 1584. A new privileged printing office has lately been established at Hrappsey in this island.

Mountains, Volcanoes and Natural Curiosities.] Though this island is situated so far north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more frequent than in many countries in much warmer climates. The former have several times laid the country almost desolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1754 and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth, and produced very fatal consequences. Many of the snowy mountains have also gradually become volcanoes. Of these burning mountains, Heckla is the best known, especially to foreigners. This mountain is situated in the southern part of the island, about four miles from the sea coast, and is divided into three points at the top, the highest of which is that in the middle; and which is computed to be above 5000 feet higher than the sea. This mountain has frequently sent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occasioned terrible devastations, the ashes being thrown all around the island, to the distance of 180 English miles. Its last eruption happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded also from it in December 1771, and in September 1772; but no eruptions of lava.

But amongst all the curiosities of Iceland, nothing is more worthy of attention than its numerous hot spouting water springs. The hot springs at Aix-la-Chapelle, Carlsbad, Bath and Switzerland, and several others in Italy, are considered as very remarkable: But, excepting in the last mentioned country, the water no where becomes so hot as to boil; nor is it any where known to be thrown so high, as the hot spouting water springs in Iceland. All those water works that have been contrived with so much art, and at so enormous an expense, cannot be compared with these. The water works at St.

Cloud, in France which are thought the greatest, cast up a thin column eighty feet into the air: While some springs in Iceland spout columns of water, of several feet in thickness, to the height, as many affirm, of several hundred feet. These springs are of unequal degrees of heat. From some, the water flows gently as from other springs, and it is then called a bath: From others, it spouts boiling water with a great noise, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Van Troil says, that he does not remember ever to have observed it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Gerser, Rœyhum and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212; and in the last place, in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 213 degrees. It is very common for some of the spouting springs to cease, and others to rise up in their place. Frequent earthquakes, and subterranean noises, heard at the time, cause great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In several of these hot springs the inhabitants who live near them, boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot, into which the flesh is put in cold water, in the water of the spring. They also bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become luke-warm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of these springs are said to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk; and it is likewise esteemed very wholesome when drank by the human species.

The largest of all the spouting springs in Iceland is called Geyser. It is about two days journey from Heckla, and not far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it a loud roaring noise is heard, like the rushing of a torrent, precipitating itself from stupendous rocks. The water here spouts several times a day, but always by starts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed that it spouts to the height of sixty fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at some times than at others; when Dr. Van Troil was there, the utmost height in which it ascended was computed to be 92 feet.

Basaltine pillars are likewise very common in Iceland, which are supposed to have been produced by subterranean fires. The lower sort of people imagine these pillars to have been piled upon one another by giants, who made use of supernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to seven sides, and are from four to six feet in thickness, and from twelve to sixteen yards in length, without any horizontal divisions. In some places they are only seen here and there among the lava in the mountains; but in some other places they extend two or three miles in length without interruption.

There are immense masses of ice, by which every year great damage is done to this country, and which affect the climate of it; they arrive commonly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind from Greenland. The field ice is of two or three fathoms thickness, is separated by the winds, and less dreaded than the rock or mountain ice, which is often seen fifty feet and more above water, and is at least nine times the same depth below water. These prodigious masses of ice are frequently left in shoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground, and in that state remain many months, nay, it is said, even years, undissolved, chilling all the circumambient part of the atmosphere for many miles. The ice caused so violent a cold in 1753 and 1754, that horses

and sheep perished on account of it. A number of bears arrive yearly with the ice; who commit great ravages, particularly among the sheep. The Icelanders attempt to destroy these intruders as soon as they get sight of them; and sometimes they assemble together, and drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. For want of fire arms they are obliged to make use of spears on these occasions. The government encourages the natives to destroy those animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed. Their skins are also purchased for the king, and are not allowed to be sold to any other person.

It is extraordinary that no wood grows successfully in Iceland; nay, there are very few trees to be found on the whole island, though there are certain proofs that wood formerly grew there in great abundance. Nor can corn be cultivated here to any advantage; though cabbages, parsley, turnips and peas, may be met with in five or six gardens, which are said to be all that are in the whole island.

Trade.] The commerce of this island is monopolized by a Danish company. The soil upon the sea coast is tolerably good for pasture; and though there is not any considerable town in the whole island, the Icelanders have several frequented ports. Their exports consist of dried fish, salted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarse woollen cloth, stockings, gloves, raw wool, sheep-skins, lamb-skins, fox-furs of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. Their imports consist of timber, fishing lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horse-shoes, brandy, wine, salt, linen, and a little silk; exclusive of some necessaries and superfluities for the more wealthy.

Strength and Revenue.] As Iceland affords no bait for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Danish majesty's protection, and the revenue he draws from the country amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

THE FARO, OR FERRO ISLANDS.

THE Faro, or Ferro islands, are twenty-four in number, lying in a cluster in the Northern Ocean, between 61 and 63 degrees of north latitude, and 6 and 8 degrees of west longitude, about mid way between the Shetland isles and Iceland. They are separated from each other by deep and rapid channels; are all indented by the sea, and furnished with many inlets, creeks, and harbours, which afford protection to fishermen and trading vessels, in bad weather. The largest of these islands, called Stromoe, is about seventeen miles in length, and eight in breadth; the rest are much smaller, and some not inhabited.

These islands are very mountainous, and, in general, surrounded with cliffs toward the sea coast. The air is moist, but so temperate with respect to heat and cold, that the natives suffer their horses and sheep to continue abroad all the winter. It is, however, very different with respect to storms and tempests: The mountains, rocks and

hills, collect such enormous clouds, and break the current of air in such a manner, as produce the most violent and sudden blasts, storms and whirlwinds. Even the tops of the mountains are frequently subject to terrible agitations of wind, when such a perfect calm reigns in the vallies, that the inhabitants carry lighted candles from house to house without any danger of their being extinguished. The whirlwinds in those islands are so sudden and dangerous, that the people, forewarned of their approach by a dreadful noise among the rocks, take immediate precautions to elude their fury. The mariner hastily furls his sails; the traveller alights from his horse, throws himself flat on his face, and clings to the grass, bushes, or any other object at hand, till the blast is over.

The number of inhabitants are about 4,000 and under the government of Denmark, but add little or nothing to the revenues of that kingdom. They profess the protestant religion, according to the tenets of Luther, under the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of a provost. The whole country is divided into seven districts, containing thirty-nine parishes.

NORWAY.

NAME, BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.

THE natural signification of Norway, is the *Northern Way*. It is bounded south by the entrance into the Baltick, called the Scaggerack, or Categate; west and north by the northern ocean; and east it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as, Fillefield, Dofrefield, Rundfield, and Dourfield. The reader may consult the table of dimensions in Denmark for its extent; but it is a country so little known to the rest of Europe, that it is difficult to fix its dimensions with precision.

Climate.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent and its position towards the sea. At Bergen the winter is moderate and the sea is navigable. The eastern parts of Norway are commonly covered with snow; and the cold generally sets in about the middle of October, with intense severity, and continues to the middle of April; the waters being all that time frozen to a considerable thickness. In 1719, 7,000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, perished in the snow, on the mountains which separate Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different postures. But even frost and snow have their conveniences, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more northerly parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is so intense, that they are but little known. At Bergen the longest day is about 19 hours and the shortest about six. In summer the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the sky; and in the most northerly parts, about midsummer, the sun is continually in view. In those

parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and a half; owing to the reflection of the sun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithstanding, has been so kind to the Norwegians, that in the midst of their darkness the sky is serene, and the moon and the aurora borealis so bright, that they can carry on their fishery, and work at their several trades in open air. Sudden thaws, and snow falls, have sometimes dreadful effects, and destroy whole villages.

Mountains.] Norway is reckoned one of the most mountainous countries in the world. It contains a chain of unequal mountains running from south to north: To pass that of Hardanger, a man must travel about seventy English miles; and to pass others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is thought the highest mountain, perhaps, in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which intersect those dreadful precipices, and that are passable only by slight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expense of providing, at different stages, houses accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vast chain, other immense mountains present themselves all over Norway; some of them with reservoirs of water on the top; and the whole forming a most surprising landscape. The activity of the natives, in recovering their sheep and goats, when penned up, through a false step in one of those rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himself to be lowered down from the top of the mountains, sitting on a cross stick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature stands, he fastens it to the same cord, and it is drawn up with himself. The caverns that are to be met with in these mountains, are more wonderful than those perhaps in any other part of the world, though less liable to observation. One of them, called Dolsten, was in 1750, visited by two clergymen; who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the sea dashing over their heads; that the passage was as wide and high as an ordinary church, the sides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted; that they descended a flight of natural stairs; but when they arrived at another, they durst not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they consumed two candles going and returning.

Forests.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its forests, which furnish a great part of Europe with masts, beams, planks and boards; and serve beside for all domestick uses; particularly the construction of houses, bridges, ships, and for charcoal to the founderies. The principal forest trees are fir, pine, elm, ash, yew, benreed, (a very curious wood) birch, beach, oak, eel or alder, juniper, the aspin tree, the comol or slow tree, hazel, elder, and even ebony (under the mountains of Kolen) lime or linden tree, and willows. The sums which Norway receives for timber are very considerable; but the industry of the inhabitants is greatly assisted by the course of their rivers, and the situation of their lakes; which afford them not only the convenience of floating down their timber, but that of erecting saw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all sawed timber belongs to his Danish majesty, and forms no inconsiderable part of his revenue.

Stones, Metals and Minerals.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of stones ; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or asbestos, is found here. It is of an incombustible nature, and when its delicate fibres are woven into cloth, is cleaned by burning. Besides this curious mineral, Norway produces crystals, granates, amethysts, agate, thunder stones, and eagle stones. Gold found in Norway has been coined into ducats. The silver mine at Konsberg was formerly very productive, yielding 70,000l. sterling per annum, but of late its produce is supposed barely to defray its expense. [*Pinkerton.*]

Other silver mines have been found in different parts of the country ; and one of the many silver masses that have been discovered, weighing 560 pounds is to be seen at the Royal Museum at Copenhagen. The lead, copper and iron mines are common in this country ; One of the copper mines at Roraas is thought to be the richest in Europe. Norway likewise produces quicksilver, sulphur, salt and coal mines ; vitriol, alum, and various kinds of loam ; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

Rivers and Lakes.] The rivers and fresh water lakes in this country are well stocked with fish, and are navigable for vessels of considerable burthen. The most extraordinary circumstance attending the lakes is, that some of them contain floating islands, formed by the cohesion of roots of trees and shrubs ; and though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. So late as the year 1702, the noble family seat of Borge, near Frederickstadt, suddenly sunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyss of a hundred fathoms in depth ; and its site was instantly filled with water, which formed a lake of 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which 14 people and 200 head of cattle perished, was occasioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

Uncommon Animals, Fowls and Fishes.] All the animals, that are natives of Denmark, are to be found in Norway, besides the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the martin, and the beaver. The elk is a tall ash-coloured animal, its shape partaking at once of the horse and the stag ; it is harmless, and, in the winter, social ; and the flesh of it tastes like venison. The rein-deer is a species of stag, and will be described hereafter.

The hares are small and are said to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are strong and sagacious : They are remarkable for not hurting children ; but their other qualities are in common with the rest of their species in northern countries ; nor can we much credit the very extraordinary specimens of their sagacity, recorded by the natives. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are shy, even of a cow or goat, unless impelled by hunger. The natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by some called the goupes, is smaller than a wolf, but as dangerous. They are of the cat kind, and have claws like tigers. They dig under ground and often undermine sheep folds,

where they make dreadful havock. The skin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable; as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewise found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs ashore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab seizes and is taken.

The glutton, otherwise called the erven, or vielfras, resembles a dog, with a long body, thick legs, sharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated, is so precious, that he is shot with blunt arrows, to preserve the skin unhurt. He is bold, and so ravenous, that it is said he will devour a carcass larger than himself, and unburthens his stomach by squeezing himself between two close standing trees: When taken he has been even known to eat stone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its shiness and cleanliness. The fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the martin and a large brown forest cat, only its head and snout are sharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. The beaver has been described in our account of the United States of America. The leming, or Norwegian mouse, proceeds from the ridge of Kolen and sometimes spreads desolation like the locust. Advancing toward the sea, they devour the vegetables, and afterward, it is said, they devour one another. [*Pinkerton.*]

Norway produces a great variety of birds. The alks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noise of their wings is like that of a storm; their size is the bigness of a large duck: They are an aquatick fowl, and their flesh is much esteemed. No fewer than thirty different kinds of thrushes are said to reside in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and several sorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark grey colour, his eye resembling that of a pheasant; and he is said to be the largest of all eatable birds. In Norway are two kinds of eagles, the land and the sea; the former is so strong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old: The sea, or fish eagle, is larger than the other; he subsists on aquatick food; and sometimes darts on large fishes with such force, that, being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

Nature seems to have adapted these aerial inhabitants for the coast of Norway; and industry has produced a species of mankind peculiarly fitted for making them serviceable to the human race: These are the birdmen, or climbers, who are amazingly dexterous in mounting the steepest rocks, and bringing away the birds and their eggs. The latter are nutritive food. The flesh is eaten by the peasants, who generally relish it; while the feathers and down form a profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers in the northern districts are trained up to be assistants to these birdmen in seizing their prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and seas abound in most kinds of fish that are found on the sea coasts of Europe. Stock fish in great numbers are caught and dried upon the rocks without salting. Some fishes in those seas, however, have their peculiarities. The haac-moren is a

species of shark, said to be ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three casks of train oil. The tuellaflynder is a very large turbot which has been known to cover a man who had fallen overboard, to keep him from rising. The season for herring fishing is announced to the fishermen by the spouting of water from the whales (of which seven different species are mentioned) in following the herring shoals. The large whale resembles a cod, with small eyes, a dark marble skin, and white belly ; they spout out the water, which they take in at the mouth, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land animals, standing upright in the sea. A young whale, when first produced, is about 9 or 10 feet long ; and the female sometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours an incredible number of small fish. They however, have their revenge : Some of them fasten on his back, and incessantly beat him ; others with sharp horns, or rather bones, on their beaks, swim under his belly, and sometimes rip it up ; some are provided with long sharp teeth, and tear his flesh. Even the aquatick birds of prey declare war against him when he comes near the surface of the water ; and he has been known to be so tortured, that he has beat himself to death on the rocks.

From under the ice round the north pole proceed innumerable shoals of herring. The European division advances along the coast of Norway. [*Pinkerton.*]

About the latitude of Iceland they divide themselves into three bodies ; one of these supplies the Western Isles and coasts of Scotland ; another directs its course round the eastern part of Great-Britain down the channel, and the third enters the Baltick through the sound. They form a great part of the food of the common people ; and the codling, kabeliau, and torsk-fishes follow them, and feed upon their spawn ; and are taken in prodigious numbers in 50 or 60 fathoms of water ; these, especially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and sold to great advantage ; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fishing on the coast of Norway. The sea-devil is about six feet in length, and is so called from its monstrous appearance and voracity. The sea-scorpion is likewise of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length ; and its bite is said to be poisonous.

The accounts of the ancients concerning sea monsters, seemingly the most fabulous, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian seas ; and the sea-snake or serpent of the ocean, is no longer counted a chimera.* In 1756, one of them was shot by a master of a ship ; its head resembled that of a horse ; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes, a white main hanging from its neck : It floated on the surface of the water, and held its head at least two feet out of the sea ; between the head and neck were seven or eight folds, which were very thick ; and the length of this snake was more than a hundred yards, some say fathoms. They have a remarkable aversion to the smell of castor ; for which reason, ship,

* One of these sea serpents was lately seen on the coast of the District of Maine in Massachusetts. See our account of that District.

boat and barque masters provide themselves with quantities of that drug to prevent being overset; the serpents olfactory nerves being remarkably exquisite. The peculiarities related of this animal would be incredible were they not attested upon oath. Egede, a very reputable author, says, that on the 6th of July 1734, a large and frightful sea monster raised itself so high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-mast of the ship; that it had a long sharp snout, broad paws, and spouted water like a whale; that the body seemed to be covered with scales; the skin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a snake. The body of this monster is said to be as thick as a hogshead; his skin is variegated like a tortoise shell; and his excrement, which floats upon the surface of the water, is corrosive, and blisters the hands of the seamen if they handle it.

Curiosities.] Those of Norway are all natural. On the coast, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex, or whirlpool, called by navigators the navel of the sea, and by some Malestrom, or Moskoestrom. The island Moskoe, whence this stream derives its name, lies between the mountain Hesleggen in Lofoden, and the island Ver, which are about one league distant; and between the island and coast on each side the stream makes its way. Between Moskoe and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moskoe and Ver, it is so shallow as not to afford passage for a small ship. When it is flood, the stream runs up to the country between Lofoden and Moskoe with a boisterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the sea with a violence and noise unequalled by the loudest cataracts. It is heard at the distance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth and extent; so violent, that if a ship comes near it, it is drawn irresistibly into the whirl, and is absorbed and carried to the bottom upon the rocks in a moment; at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes still for about a quarter of an hour, it rises again in scattered fragments. When it is agitated by a storm, it has reached vessels at the distance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themselves in perfect security. It is difficult to conceive a situation of more horror than that of being thus driven forward by the sudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the vortex of a whirlpool, of which the noise and turbulence still increasing as it is approached, are an earnest of quick and inevitable destruction. Even animals, which have come too near the vortex, have expressed the utmost terror when they find the stream irresistible. Whales are frequently carried away; and the moment they feel the force of the water, they struggle against it with all their might, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to swim to the island to prey upon the sheep. The large stems of firs and pines rise again so shivered and splintered, that the pieces look as if covered with bristles. The whole phenomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flow occasioned by the contraction of the stream in its course between the rocks.

People, Language, Religion and Customs of Norway.] The Norwegians are of a middle character, between the simple Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more polished Danes. Their religion is Lutheran;

and they have bishops, as those of Denmark, without temporal jurisdiction. Their viceroy, like his master, is absolute; but the farmers and common people in Norway are less oppressed than those in Denmark.

The Norwegians in general are strong, robust and brave; but quick in resenting real or supposed injuries. The women are handsome and courteous; the Norwegian manners are mild, resembling the Saxon ancestors of the present English. Every inhabitant is an artisan, and supplies his family with necessaries of his own manufacture; so that in Norway there are few by profession who are hatters, shoemakers, taylors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, smiths, or joiners. The lowest Norwegian peasant is an artist, a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oat-meal, the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; being reduced to very extraordinary shifts for supplying the place of bread, or farinaceous food. The middle class of Norwegians live in plenty; but, what is singular, they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury; and this middle state prolongs their ages surprisingly. Though their dress is in many respects accommodated to their climate, yet, through custom, instead of guarding against the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expose themselves to cold, without any cover upon their breasts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years old is not accounted past his labour. In 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Danish majesty at Frederickshall, whose ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

In the funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians are vestiges of their former paganism: They play on a violin at the head of the coffin, while the corpse is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In some places the mourners ask the dead person why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other questions; frequently kneeling down and asking forgiveness, if ever they had offended the deceased.

Commerce.] See the account of Denmark. The duties on exports, most of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rix-dollars a year.

Strength and Revenue.] By the best calculations, Norway can furnish 14,000 excellent seamen, and above 30,000 brave soldiers, for the use of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to about 200,000l.

History.] The ancient Norwegians, were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardiest seamen in the world. If we are to believe their histories, they were no strangers to America, long before it was discovered by Columbus. Many customs of their ancestors are yet discernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent descents, and some settlements, which are generally confounded with those of the Danes. From their being the most turbulent, they are become now the most loyal subjects in Europe. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their history as well as interests are the same as that of Denmark, which

see.

DENMARK PROPER, OR JUTLAND,

EXCLUSIVE OF THE ISLANDS IN THE BALTICK.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		
Length	240*	between	54° and 58° north latitude.
Breadth	114		8° and 11° east longitude.

Containing 15,744 square miles, with 139 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries and Divisions.] IT is divided on the north from Norway by the Scaggerack sea; and from Sweden on the east by the sound; on the south it has Germany and the Baltick; and the German sea divides it from Great-Britain on the west.

Denmark Proper is divided into two parts: The peninsula of Jutland, anciently called *Cimbria Chersonesus*, and the islands at the entrance of the Baltick, mentioned in the table. It is remarkable, that though all these together constitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet not any one of them is separately called by that name.

Climate.] The climate is more temperate in this country, on account of the surrounding sea, than in many more southerly parts of Europe. Spring and autumn are seasons scarcely known in Denmark, on account of the sudden transitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold. In all the northern provinces of Denmark the winters are very severe; the inhabitants often pass arms of the sea in sledges upon the ice; and during the winter all their harbours are frozen.

Soil and State of Agriculture.] One of the largest and most fertile of all the provinces of this kingdom is Jutland, which produces abundance of all sorts of grain and pasturage, and is a kind of magazine for Norway on all occasions. A great number of small cattle are bred in this province, and transported to Holstein, to be fed for the use of Hamburg, Lubeck and Amsterdam. Jutland is every where interspersed with hills, and on the east side has fine woods of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees; but the west side being less woody, the inhabitants are obliged to use turf and heath for fuel. Zealand is for the most part a sandy soil, but fertile in grain and pasturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes of water.

The greatest part of the lands in Denmark and Holstein are fiefs; and the ancient nobility, by grants extorted at different times from the crown, gained such a power over the farmers and tenants, that they reduced them to a state of slavery; they were bought and sold with the lands, and were esteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders in Sleswick and Holstein have the power of life and death. The situation of the farmers has been made somewhat more agreeable by some modern edicts; but they are still, if such an expression may be allowed, chained to their farms, and disposed of at the will of their lords. When a farmer has been indus-

* The reader is desired to observe, that in this part of the work, reckoning the extent of countries, the *longest* and *broadest* parts are mentioned. Great allowance, therefore, must be made in most countries. Jutland, for instance, is 114 miles where broadest, though in several other parts it is not fifty.

trious, and by his improvements rendered a poor farm fertile, his lord removes him to another of his poor farms. In this way industry and agriculture are discouraged and ruined. The consequence is, that nine parts in ten of the inhabitants are in a state of great poverty. But if the farmers had a security for their property, the lands of Denmark might have been cultivated to much greater advantage, and a much greater number of people supported.

Population, Manners and Customs.] The most accurate account of the population of Denmark, is that made under the direction of the famous Struensee, by which

Jutland numbered	358,136	Iceland	46,201
Zealand	283,466	Dutchy of Sleswick	243,605
Funen	143,988	Dutchy of Holstein	134,665
Norway	723,141	Oldenburg	62,854
Islands of Ferro	4,754	Delmenhorst	16,217
		Total,	2,017,027

However disproportioned this number may seem to the extent of his Danish majesty's dominions; yet, every thing considered, it is greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated state of his possesions. But the trade of Denmark has been so shackled, and her merchants so terrified by the despotism of her goverment, that this kingdom is at present one of the most indigent states in Eupope. These circumstances prevent Denmark from being so populous as it might be, if the administration of government were more mild and equitable, and if proper encouragement were given to foreigners, and to those who engage in agriculture and other arts. The empress of Russia, in 1773, ceded to the king of Denmark that portion of Holstein which descended to the line of Holstein Gottorp, in exchange for Oldenburg and Delmenhorst, which she gave to the prince of Lubeck. This exchange is favourable to Denmark, both as to trade and population.

The ancient inhabitants of Denmark possessed a degree of courage, which approached even to ferocity; but by a continued series of tyranny and oppression, their national character is much changed; and from a brave, enterprising and warlike people, they are become indolent and timid. They value themselves much upon those titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, and are very fond of pomp and show.

Religion.] In Denmark, as in Sweden, the established religion is the Lutheran, introduced in the year 1536. Christians of all professions, and Jews are tolerated. Missions are established for the conversion of Pagans in Lapland, Greenland and Tranquebar. The Danish clergy consist of bishops, provosts and ministers. The bishops, called in publick acts, superintendants, are six, of whom the bishop of Zealand is the first in rank. All ecclesiastical affairs are subject to the jurisdiction of the college of Supreme Inspectors; the provosts convene every six months a subordinate meeting of the ministers under their inspection, in which they preside, and over which they exercise a jurisdiction; from which an appeal lies to the Supreme Inspectors.

Language and Learning.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonick; but High Dutch and French are spoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in the English, which is now publickly taught at Copenhagen, as a necessary part of education. A company of English comedians occasionally visit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement. Denmark has two universities, that of Copenhagen and that of Kiel; two academical colleges, at Soroe and Odensee; and thirty-two other great schools in the principal towns. There is at Copenhagen a royal society of sciences; an historical society for the study of northern history; another of Icelandick history and literature; an academy for painting and architecture: a college of physicians and surgeons; and another society of sciences at Drontheim. This kingdom shares with Sweden the praise of promoting sciences, by sending numbers of learned men, at the publick expense, to all parts of the globe, to make useful discoveries.

The university of Copenhagen has funds for the gratuitous support of 328 students; these funds are said to amount to 300,000 rix-dollars: but the Danes in general make no great figure in literature; though astronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borichius, and the Bartholines.

As is usual, literature here dawned with the introduction of christianity, which was not till the eleventh century. Each parish is now supplied with two or three schools. [*Pinkerton.*]

The science of botany owes great obligations to the celebrated Christian Oeder, to whom, through the liberality of his monarch, we are indebted for the Flora Danica. In speaking of the publications on natural history, it would be unpardonable to omit mentioning the most splendid work of the kind ever produced in any nation; it is a collection of rare shells, in two volumes folio, engraved and coloured by Francis Michael Regenfuss, at the royal expense.

Chief Towns.] Copenhagen, the capital of Denmark, and the residence of the king, is situated on the fine island of Zealand, in N. lat. 55° 40′ 56″ and E. lon. 12° 50′, on a low, marshy ground, on the margin of the Baltick sea, and has a beautiful and commodious harbour, which admits only one ship to enter it at a time, but is capable of containing 500. The road for the shipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon. On the land side are some lakes which furnish the inhabitants with plenty of fresh water. The adjacent country is pleasant; and opposite the city lies the island of Amager, which is very fruitful, and forms the harbour. It is joined to the town by a bridge.

This city is more than six miles in circumference, and makes a fine appearance at a distance. It contains 11 squares and markets, nearly 200 streets, 4 royal castles, 10 parishes, and 9 other churches, several palaces, and 4000 houses, and in 1790, 85,965 souls. [*Fabri.*] Frederick V. gave particular encouragement for erecting elegant buildings in that part of the town which borders on the harbour, which part has since been called Frederickstadt, but is commonly included under the general name of Copenhagen. This division, being more modern, is laid out in broad streets, running in a straight line. Since the

last great fire, the streets of old Copenhagen have been altered for the better. There are in some parts of the city, broad and deep canals, into which large ships may enter, and lade and unlade close to the ware houses.

Among the most remarkable publick buildings are, 1st. The great Wartow Hospital in the west quarter of old Copenhagen, containing upwards of 300 beds for the sick and poor, each of whom has his lodging gratis, and a weekly allowance of half a rix-dollar. Close to this hospital is a small church, so contrived, that the bed-ridden may hear divine service in their beds. 2d. The Orphan house which takes up one entire side of the New-Market, and is a great ornament to it. 3d. The city prison, which has its particular church. 4th. A large edifice, in the strand quarter of the old city, in the first story of which is the arsenal; in the second, the king's library; in the third, the picture gallery, the royal cabinet of curiosities, and the cabinet of medals; and in the fourth, the cabinet of models.

The inhabitants of this city are mostly Lutherans. The Calvinists have a church to themselves: The Jews have their synagogues; and the Roman Catholicks resort to the chapels of the foreign ministers of their religion. The magistracy of Copenhagen consists of a president, three burgomasters, and some vice burgomasters, and common council men. The police is excellent. One may walk through the streets of the city at midnight with perfect safety. There are no robberies, no assassinations. At eleven o'clock at night, it is usually almost as quiet here as in a country village. Scarcely a single coach rattles through the streets. [*Wraxall.*]

Elsineur is well built, contains 5,000 inhabitants, and, with respect to commerce, is only exceeded by Copenhagen. It is strongly fortified on the land side; and toward the sea, is defended by a strong fort, containing several batteries of long cannon. Here all vessels pay a toll, and in passing, lower their top sails.

Wealth and Commerce.] If the cold and barren country of Norway did not require large supplies of corn from Denmark, the latter would be able to export a considerable quantity. Sleswick, Jutland, Zealand and Leland, are very rich corn countries. Black cattle, which are in great abundance, and of great excellence in these provinces, is a most valuable article of commerce with the neighbouring provinces of Germany: Between 60 and 80,000 head of cattle are annually sold. Denmark is rather deficient in sheep, with which the climate does not agree. The chief produce of Norway is wood and timber; the annual exports of masts, planks, balks, and fir-wood, amount to the value of 1,000,000 rix dollars: This trade is chiefly carried on by the towns of Christiana and Drontheim; one district in the government of Drontheim supplies annually 535,000 planks. Norway exports great variety of peltry. The mines of Norway are valuable; there is but little gold found, except at Edsfort, in the government of Christiana. The mines at Konsberg and Jarlsberg produce silver to the value of 300 or 350,000 rix dollars annually; and they employ upwards of 4,000 miners: Government derives no revenue from these mines, the expenses exceed the profits. The iron works in this kingdom produce an annual profit of 60,000 rix dollars. About 4 or

5,000 ship-pound of copper are exported; the greatest mine of this metal is at Roeraa, in the government of Drontheim. The number of miners in Norway is about 8,000. Norway has very valuable fisheries. According to Pontoppidan, upwards of 100 species of fishes are caught in these seas; of which the articles of cod, herrings and whales, are valued at near two millions of rix-dollars. The same author informs us, that Norway exports large quantities of train oil. The imports of Denmark consist chiefly of corn; as to Norway, only a fourteenth part of it is fit for agriculture: besides corn, the articles of salt, flax, linen, wool, brandy, wine, fruits, silk, spices and hardware are imported. Norway being thinly peopled, and little acquainted with luxury, has the balance of trade in its favour, which is against the kingdom of Denmark. The whole of the exports of Denmark and Holstein amounted, in 1768, to 1,382,681 rix-dollars; the imports to 1,976,800 rix-dollars. The exports of Norway, to 1,711,369, and the imports to 1,238,284 dollars. [*Busching.*] There are at present two trading companies, an East-India, and a Guinea and West-India company; an insurance company, and a paper bank. In 1783, 11,161 ships passed the sound. Manufactures do not thrive in Denmark, but there are several of cloth, hardware, china, gloves, &c. refineries of sugar, saltpetre works, &c. For the encouragement and convenience of inland trade, a navigable canal has been cut lately from Kiel, through Holstein, to the river Eyder; by means of which, the Baltick and the German sea are connected. The chief commercial towns in this kingdom are Copenhagen, Flensburg and Kiel, (4,500 inhabitants); and Bergen, (18,000 inhabitants) and Drontheim, (8,000 inhabitants) in Norway. [*Zim.*] Of late, the Danes have a commercial intercourse with the United States of America, whence they have received, in one year, from October 1790, in various commodities, to the amount of 277,273 dollars 53 cents. This commerce is increasing annually.

Curiosities, Natural and Artificial.] Denmark proper affords fewer of these than the other parts of his Danish majesty's dominions, if we except the contents of the Royal Museum at Copenhagen, which consists of a numerous collection of both. It contains several good paintings, and a fine collection of coins, particularly those of the consuls, in the time of the Roman republick, and of the emperors after the seat of empire was divided into the East and West. Beside artificial skeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Danish artist, who was blind, here are to be seen two famous antique drinking vessels; the one of gold, the other of silver, and both of the form of a hunting horn: That of gold seems to be of Pagan manufacture; and from the raised hieroglyphical figures on its outside, it probably was made use of in religious ceremonies: It is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two English pints and a half, and was found in the diocess of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of silver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; which, they say, was presented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghost. This museum is likewise furnished with a prodigious number of astronomical, optical and mathematical instruments; some Indian curiosities,

and a set of medals ancient and modern. Many curious astronomical instruments are likewise placed in the round tower at Copenhagen; which is so contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flensburg and Sleswick, is also esteemed a curiosity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great-Britain, and the ancestors of the bulk of the modern English.

The greatest rarities in his Danish majesty's dominions are those ancient inscriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquaries and historians; and are generally thought to be the old and original manner of writing, before the use of paper of any kind, and waxen tables, were known. These characters are Runick, and so imperfectly understood by the learned themselves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be historical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo-Grammaticus, has exhibited specimens of several of these inscriptions.

Government.] The ancient kings of Denmark exercised a power limited by the very considerable rights and privileges possessed by the estates of the kingdom, viz. the nobility, the clergy and the commons. In the beginning of 1661, the estates, annoyed by dissensions among themselves, and guided by leaders indifferent to the blessings of liberty, took the rash step of surrendering their native rights to their monarch. Since this servile act of submission, the kings of Denmark have been possessed of an absolute and uncontrolled authority, subject to the conditions of their professing the established Protestant religion, and preserving the dominions of the kingdom undivided. The order of succession was settled in 1665, by the Lex Regia, which renders women capable of succeeding to the throne. The law of indigenate, which excludes foreigners not naturalized, from holding any employment of trust or profit, was introduced by the present king. Christian V. published an excellent code of civil and criminal laws, for the use of the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway; Iceland retaining its very ancient and peculiar customary law. The Roman or civil law is not in force in this kingdom, nor is any regard paid to other foreign systems of law. Justice is administered in the several courts with great fairness and dispatch, according to the simple and excellent regulations of the code of laws. The highest department of administration is the cabinet, or supreme council, composed at present, of the hereditary prince and six ministers of state, presidents of the subordinate departments; among which that of foreign affairs is considered as the most honourable. There are two chanceries; one for the Danish and the other for the German language. Each province has a particular governour, presiding over the provincial departments.

Punishments.] The common method of execution in Denmark is beheading and hanging: For the most atrocious crimes, such as the murder of a father or mother, husband or wife, and robbery upon the highway, the malefactor is broken upon the wheel. But capital punishments are not common in Denmark: And the other modes of punishment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the rasp-house, to houses of correction, and to publick labour and imprisonment; all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

Revenue.] The annual revenue is computed at £1,500,000 sterling. Denmark contributes £543,554, Norway £290,000, Sleswick and Holstein £300,000, the West-India Islands £262,000, the toll levied at the Sound, paid at Elsineur, is £122,554, Altona £3,150. The expenses of government are £1,050,000 per annum. The publick debt £2,600,000. [*Pinkerton.*]

Army.] According to the new plan of 1785, the number of the army is to be as follows: 1. Cavalry, 6,073 men. 2. Infantry, 33,475 men. 3. For Norway, 35,715. Total of the army, 75,263.

The expenses of the army will amount to only 1,663,922 rix-dollars. There is a military school at Copenhagen.

Navy.] The navy of Denmark, in 1779, consisted of 61 sail, viz. 31 ships of the line and 9 ditto of 50 guns, 21 frigates, &c. besides some sloops, bombs and fire-ships. Only 25 ships of the line, and 15 frigates were fit for service. More have been built lately. There are employed in the king's ships 5000 sailors, besides a corps of marines. At Copenhagen there is a naval academy. Nearly 40,000 seamen are registered, and cannot quit the kingdom without leave.

History.] Denmark was little known till the year 714, when Gormo was king. The Scandinavians or Cimbri, and the Teutones (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway and Sweden) were descendants of the *Scythians.* Under the name of *Scythian,* may be included all those northern countries of Europe and Asia, (now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Russians and Tartars) whose inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued so late as the 13th century to issue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more southern and fertile kingdoms of Europe; hence, by Sir William Temple, and other historians, they are termed the *northern Hive, the Mother of Nations, the Storehouse of Europe.*

In the eleventh century, under Canute the Great, Denmark was in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give sanction to the expression. Few interesting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted that throne; partly by her address, and partly by hereditary right, she formed the union of Calmer, A. D. 1397, by which she was acknowledged sovereign of Sweden, Denmark and Norway. She held her dignity with such firmness and courage, that she was justly styled the Semiramis of the North. Her successors being destitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmer, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one sovereign, fell to nothing. Norway, however, still continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Christian, count of Oldenburg, from whom the present royal family of Denmark is descended. About the year 1536, the Protestant religion was established in Denmark, by that wise and politick prince, Christian III.

Christian IV. of Denmark was chosen head of the Protestant league, formed against the house of Austria in 1629, and died in 1648, and was succeeded by his son, Frederick III.; who was persuaded by the Dutch, to declare war against Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden. This had almost cost him his crown, in 1657. Frederick, who was a man of great abilities, civil and military, was succeed-

ed in 1670, by his unfortunate son, Christian V. who died 1699. His successor was the brave and warlike Frederick IV. who died 1730, having, two years before, seen his capital reduced to ashes by an accidental fire. His son and successor, Christian VI. made no other use of his power and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happiness of his subjects, whom he eased of many oppressive taxes.

In 1734, after guaranteeing the Pragmatick Sanction,* Christian sent 6,000 men to the assistance of the emperor, during the dispute of the succession to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacifick, yet he was jealous of his rights, especially over Hamburg. He obliged the Hamburghers to call in the mediation of Prussia, to abolish their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of silver marks. Christian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His son and successor, Frederick V. had, in 1743, married the princess Louisa, daughter to his Britannick majesty, George II. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happiness of his people. Upon the death of his first queen, who was mother to his present Danish majesty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle, and died in 1766. His son, Christian VII. was born the 29th of January, 1749; and married his present Britannick majesty's youngest sister, the princess Carolina Matilda. In 1768, he visited England, and travelled through the principal states of Europe: And from his return from this tour, in 1769, may with propriety be dated that memorable revolution, which took place in the court of Denmark in 1772.†

In 1780, his Danish majesty acceded to the armed neutrality proposed by the empress of Russia. A plan for the abolition of the slave trade among the subjects of Denmark was approved by the king, February 22, 1792. It is to be gradual; and, in 1803, all trade in negroes is to cease on the part of the Danish subjects. Count Schimmelan, the minister of state, formed this humane plan; and it gives satisfaction to those who possess large estates in the West-India Islands. A scheme for reducing the national debt has been adopted, and one million had been discharged in 1799. Denmark did not join the confederacy against France. A dispute between Denmark and Great-Britain, occasioned by the latter insisting on their right to search neutral vessels, and which threatened a rupture between those two powers, in the summer of 1800, was soon amicably adjusted.

Christian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, L. L. D. and F. R. S. was married to the princess Carolina Matilda, of England; and has issue, Frederick, prince royal of Denmark, born January 28, 1768, Louisa Augusta, princess royal, born July 7, 1771.

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to support the house of Austria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male issue.

† An authentick, interesting and affecting history of this Revolution and of the melancholy fates of Queen Carolina Matilda, and Counts Struensee and Brandt, was written by a "*Personage principally interested,*" and translated from the German, by B. H. Latrobe. To this work the curious reader is referred.

DANISH GERMAN DOMINIONS.

HOLSTEIN, a dutchy of Lower Saxony, about 100 miles long and 50 broad, and a fruitful country, was formerly divided between the empress of Russia, (termed Ducal Holstein) the king of Denmark, and the imperial cities of Hamburg and Lubeck; but in 1773, the Ducal Holstein, with all the rights, prerogatives, and territorial sovereignty, was formally transferred to the king of Denmark, by virtue of a treaty between both courts. The Duke of Holstein Gottorp, is joint sovereign of great part of it now, with the Danish monarch. Kiel is the capital of Ducal Holstein, N. lat. 54° 21′, has 800 houses and 7000 inhabitants, [*Fabri.*] is well built, has a harbour, and neat publick edifices. The capital of the Danish Holstein is Gluckstadt, a well built town and fortress, but in a marshy unhealthy situation, on the right of the Elbe, and has some foreign commerce. It has 4,500 inhabitants. [*Fabri.*]

Altona, a large and handsome town of great traffick, is commodiously situated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg. It has 24,000 inhabitants. [*Reichard.*] It was built in that situation by the kings of Denmark, that it might share in the commerce of the former. Being declared a free port, and the staple of the Danish East-India company, the merchants also enjoying liberty of conscience, great numbers flocked to Altona from all parts of the north, and even from Hamburg itself. Next to Copenhagen it is the largest and most populous city in the Danish dominions, containing 3,120 houses, and 22,400 inhabitants, among which are 2,400 German and Portuguese Jews, who are here admitted to civil rights. It has 3 Lutheran churches, 2 Calvinian, 1 Roman Catholick, and one for Menonists, and two Jews' synagogues. It has also a mint, a bank, royal exchange, an anatomical theatre, and six ship yards. [*Fabri.*]

Hamburg, a celebrated imperial city, is situated on the north side of the river Elbe, in N. lat. 53° 36′ and E. long. 10° 38′, in the dutchy of Holstein, in his Danish majesty's German dominions. It is nearly circular, and six miles in circumference. Besides its natural strength, it is as well fortified by art as a place of such magnitude can be. It has six gates and four entrances by water, two from the Elbe, and two from the Alster. The wall is defended by bulwarks, other out works and a deep ditch. A line with other works runs from the largest bason of the Alster to the Elbe, about half a mile above the town; and on the other side of the bason below the town, is the Star Leonce, an almost impregnable fortification. The walls and other fortifications that lie open to view, are planted with rows of high trees in such a manner that, on that side of the wall next to Altona, the houses cannot be seen. The number of houses are reckoned at more than 30,000, and the inhabitants at 180,000. According to Fabri, 100,000, of which 3,500 are Jews.

The publick buildings are but indifferent. The churches, which are ancient structures, stand open every day, and in some of them are booksellers' shops. They have six large market places. Of the many hospitals in this city, is the hospital for orphans, which has a rev-

enue of between 60 and 70,000*l.* a year. There is a large hospital for poor travellers that fall sick: another for the relief of ancient, maimed and decayed seamen, where care is also taken of the widows and children of those who lose their lives in the service of the publick. Another for the poor, old, blind and dumb people; another for the venereal disease, and a pest house. The prison for malefactors is in the hangman's house. The criminal, after sentence, is carried to an upper room, where he is allowed a good bed, with all comforts suited to his melancholy condition, and is there constantly attended by one of the city clergymen. Among the several convents, which are now Lutheran, one is obliged to offer a glass of wine to every malefactor, that is carried by it to the place of execution.

The government of Hamburg is vested in the senate and three colleges of burghers. The principal persons of the republick have a right to exercise every act of sovereignty; but the management of the finances is solely intrusted to the burghers. The Hamburghers (though nominally and politically the subjects of the king of Denmark, who still lays claim to certain privileges within the walls of the city) are subject to the general laws of the Germanick body, but have neither seat nor vote in the General Diet of the empire. They pay to the emperor, for their protection, the annual tribute of 80,000 crowns.

Hamburg, from its situation, has many advantages for trade, and is the largest commercial town in Germany, and the next in Europe to London and Amsterdam. [*Fabri.*] The ships come to their doors to lade and unlade. Beside the Elbe, which enters the German ocean a little below the town, a canal is opened into the Trave, for the sake of a communication with Lubeck and the Baltick sea. The Elbe, and the many navigable rivers that fall into it, running through the richest and most trading parts of Germany, furnish this city with the produce and manufactures of Upper and Lower Saxony, Austria and Bohemia. By the Flavel and Spree rivers, it trades with the Electorate of Brandenburg; and by a canal from the Spree and the Ader, its commerce is extended into Silesia, Moravia and Poland. It has two spacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals. The Hamburghers maintain 12 companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, besides an artillery company. There are in Hamburg, about 200 sugar baking houses, and 2,000 hands are constantly employed in the manufacture of cotton. No less than 2,000 vessels are entered and cleared here annually. (*Fabri.*)

Lubeck, N. latitude 53° 50′ 22″, an imperial city, with a good harbour, and once the capital of the Hans Towns, is situated on the Trave, Steknitz and Wakenitz, which form an important water connection between the Baltick and the North Sea. It is among the best German towns for trade, and has 3,000 inhabitants; is a rich and populous place, in the dutchy of Holstein, and governed by its own magistrates. It has 20 parish churches, and a large cathedral. Lutheranism is the established religion of the whole dutchy.

In Westphalia, the king of Denmark has the counties of *Oldenburg* and *Delmenhorst*, about 2000 square miles. They lie on the south side

of the Weser; their capitals have the same name; the first has the remains of a fortification, and the last is an open place. Oldenburg gave a title to the first royal ancestor of his present Danish majesty. The country abounds with marshes and heaths. Its horses are the best in Germany.

DANISH FOREIGN POSSESSIONS.

ASIA. Settlements in Coromandel, 20,000 inhabitants.
1. Tranquebar, with the 2. Fort of Dansborg. 3. The Nicobar or Frederick's Islands, north of Sumatra. 4. Some factories or lodges.
AFRICA. 1. Christianborg. 2. Fredensborg (on the coast of Guinea.) 3. Some factories, near Axim.
AMERICA. 1. Greenland, divided into East or Old Greenland, and West-Greenland, a very extensive country, of many thousand square miles, but very thinly inhabited. Crantz, and after him Fabricius, gives the best description of this country. The islands of St. Croix, St. Thomas and St. John, in the West-Indies. Here the Moravian brethren have useful establishments.

The whole of Denmark contains 68 towns, 22 smaller towns or boroughs, 15 earldoms, 16 baronies, 932 estates of the inferior nobility, 7,000 villages.
Norway contains only 18 towns, two earldoms, and 27 estates of the other nobility. Inhabitants 723,141. [*Zim.*]

LAPLAND.

THE northern situation of Lapland, and the division of its property, render it proper that it should be here described under a distinct head.

Situation, Extent, Division and Name.] The whole country of Lapland extends, so far as it is known, from the North Cape in 71° 30' north latitude to the White Sea, under the arctick circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the most valuable; and some parts in the east, to the Russians. That belonging to the Swedes, comprehends all the country from the Baltick to the mountains which separate Norway from Sweden. The Muscovite part lies toward the east, between the lake Enerak and the White Sea. Except the Swedish part, which is subject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be said to be under no regular government. The Swedish Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly considered by authors in describing this country. It has been generally thought that the Laplanders are the descendants of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lappes*, which signi-

fies exiles. The reader, from the northern situation of Lapland, may easily conceive that for some months in the summer, the sun never sets; and during winter it never rises. But the inhabitants are so well assisted by the twilight and the *aurora borealis*, that they never discontinue their work on account of the darkness

Climate.] The winters here, are extremely cold. Drifts of snow often threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw sometimes takes place, and then the frost that succeeds, presents the Laplander with a smooth level of ice, over which he travels with a rein-deer in a sledge with inconceivable swiftness. The heat of summer is excessive for a short time; and the cataracts, which dash from the mountains, often present to the eye the most picturesque appearances.

Mountains, Lakes, Rivers and Forests.] The reader must form in his mind a vast mass of mountains, irregularly crowded together, to give him an idea of Lapland: They are, however, in some interstices, separated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of islands, some of which form delightful habitations; and are believed by the natives to be the terrestrial paradise: Even roses and other flowers grow wild on their borders in the summer; though this is but a short gleam of temperature. Dusky forests, and noisome, unhealthy morasses, and barren plains cover great part of the flat country.

Metals and Minerals.] Silver and gold mines, as well as those of iron, copper and lead, have been discovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage; beautiful crystals are found here, as are some amethysts and topazes; also various sorts of mineral stones, surprisingly polished by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have been found in the rivers.

Animals, Quadrupeds, Birds, Fishes and Insects.] We must refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as its contents are in common with all the three countries. The *zibelin*, a creature resembling the martin, is a native of Lapland; and its skin, whether black or white, is so much esteemed, that it is frequently given as presents to royal and distinguished personages. The Lapland hares grow white in winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the native in hunting. By far the most remarkable, however, of the Lapland animals, is the *rein-deer*, which nature seems to have provided to solace the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life. This animal, the most useful perhaps of any in the creation, resembles the stag, only the head droops and the horns project. All who have described these animals have taken notice of the cracking noise they make when they move their legs, which is attributed to their separating and afterwards bringing together the divisions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair, in the same manner that the claw of the *Ptarmigan* is with feathery bristles, which is almost the only bird that can endure the rigour of the same climate. The hoof, however, is not only thus protected; the same necessity which obliges the Laplanders to use snow shoes, makes the extraordinary width of the rein-deer's hoof to be equally convenient in passing over snow, as it prevents their sinking

too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body rest only on a small point. This quadruped has therefore an instinct to use a hoof of such a form in a still more advantageous manner, by separating it when the foot is to touch the ground so as to cover a larger surface of snow. The instant, however, the leg of the animal is raised, the hoof is immediately contracted, and the collision of the parts occasions the snapping which is heard on every motion of the deer, and probably the cracking which they perpetually make, may serve to keep them together when it is remarkably dark. In summer the rein-deer provide themselves with leaves and grass, and in the winter they live upon moss: They have a wonderful sagacity at finding it out, and when found, they scrape away with their feet the snow that covers it. The scantiness of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journies which they can perform without any other support. They fix the rein-deer to a kind of sledge, shaped like a small boat, in which the traveller, well secured from cold, is laced down, with the reins in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and snow. The deer, whose harnessing is very simple, sets out, and continues the journey with prodigious speed; and is so safe and tractable, that the driver is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they look out for their own provender: and their milk often helps to support their master. Their instinct in choosing their road, and directing their course, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the summer months, when they live in woods. Their flesh is a well tasted food, whether fresh or dried: Their skin forms excellent clothing, both for the bed and the body: Their milk and cheese are nutritive and pleasant; and their intestines and tendons supply their masters with thread and cordage.

It is difficult in summer to keep them from straggling; they are sometimes buried in the snow; and they frequently grow restive, to the great danger of the driver and his carriage. Their suprising speed (for they are said to run at the rate of 200 miles a day) seems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. But the natives would have difficulty to subsist without them.

People, Customs and Manners.] The language of the Laplanders comprehends so many dialects, that it is with difficulty they understand each other. They have neither writing or letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphicks, which they make use of in their Rounes, a sort of sticks that they call Pistave, and which serve them for almanacks. These hieroglyphicks are also the marks they use instead of signatures, even in matters of law. Missionaries, from the christianised parts of Scandinavia, have introduced among them the christian religion; and they have some religious seminaries, instituted by the king of Denmark. The majority of the Laplanders, however, are pagans. The number and oddities of their superstitions have induced the northern traders to believe that they are skilled in magick and divination. The profession of conjurors is fixed among them, by which many persons obtain their living. The Laplanders still retain the worship of many of the Teutonick gods; but have remains of the druidical institution. They have places of

worship erected, and images dedicated to their gods, and to them sacrifices are offered. They are great observers of lucky and unlucky days, yet they religiously abstain from profanity and blasphemy, and are seldom guilty of theft, adultery or murder. Like the ancient Indians of New-England, they take down their dwellings several times in a year, removing to different places in the season of hunting, fishing, &c. Their game is all brought in through the back door of their house, through which their women are never allowed to pass, it being a bad omen for a hunter to meet a woman. In this their opinions are not unlike the northern Indians of North-America. Neither polygamy nor divorce were ever heard of among the Laplanders. They are careful to have their children baptized early. A fortnight after its birth the mother sometimes carries the child a tedious journey for its baptism. They believe the transmigration of the soul; and have festivals set apart for the worship of certain genii, called Jeuhles, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but being without form or substance, they assign to them neither images nor statues.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into Lapland fishers, and Lapland mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink, or in the neighbourhood of some lake, whence they draw their subsistence. The others seek their support upon the mountains and their environs. They are excellent and very industrious herdsmen, and are rich in comparison to the Lapland fishers. Some of them possess six hundred or a thousand rein-deer, and have often money and plate beside. They mark every rein-deer on the ears, and divide them into classes; so that they can perceive whether any one is strayed, though they cannot count to so great a number as that to which their flock often amounts. The Lapland fishers, who are also called Laplanders of the woods, because in summer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the forests, live by fishing and hunting, and choose their situation by its conveniences for either. The greatest part of them, however, have some rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chase: And the introduction of fire arms among them has almost entirely abolished the use of the bow. The employment of the women consists in making nets for the fishery, in drying fish and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheese, and in tanning hides: But it is understood to be the business of the men to look after the kitchen; in which, it is said, the women never interfere.

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents, from twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and about six high. They cover them according to the season, and the means of the possessor; with briers, bark of birch, linen, turf, coarse cloth or felt, or the old skins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains, which open. A little place surrounded with stones, is made in the middle of the hut for fire, over which a chain is suspended to hang a kettle. In winter, at night, they put their naked feet into a fur bag. The rein-deer supply the Laplanders with the greatest part of their provisions; the chase and the fishery supply the rest. The flesh of the bear is considered by them as their most delicate meat. They eat every

kind of fish, even the sea dog ; as well as all sorts of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey, and carnivorous animals. Their winter provisions consist chiefly of flesh and fish dried in the open air, both of which they eat raw, and without dressing. Their common drink is water, sometimes mixed with milk : They make also broths and fish soups. Brandy is very scarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family spreads a mat on the ground ; and then men and women squat round this mat, which is covered with dishes. Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a spoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion separately given him, that no person may be injured ; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a short prayer : after eating, each gives the other his hand.

In the dress of the Laplanders they use no kind of linen. The men wear close breeches, reaching down to their shoes, which are made of untanned skins, pointed, and turned up before ; and in winter they put a little hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their shape, and open at the breast. Over this they wear a close coat with narrow sleeves, whose skirts reach down to the knees, and which is fastened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or brass. To this girdle they tie their knives, their instruments for getting fire, their pipes, and the rest of their smoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, of leather, or of cloth ; the close coat of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. They wear also caps fitted to the shape of the head ; and as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with embroidery of brass wire, or at least with list of different colours.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenness of its soil. The whole number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are, in general, considerably shorter than more southerly Europeans. Maupertius measured a woman who was suckling her child, whose height did not exceed four feet two inches and a half ; they make, however, a much more agreeable appearance than the men, who are often ill shaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies. Their women are complaisant, chaste, often well made, and extremely nervous ; which is also observable among the men, although more rarely. They enjoy health and longevity, sometimes living more than a hundred years, and often to 80 and 90, still cheerful and active.

When a Laplander intends to marry a female, he, or his friends, court her father with brandy ; when with some difficulty, he gains admittance to his fair one, he offers her a beaver's tongue, or some other eatable, which she rejects before company, but accepts in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage ; but every admittance to the fair one is purchased from her father by her lover with a bottle of brandy, and this prolongs the courtship sometimes for three years. The priest of the parish at last celebrates the nuptials ; but the bridegroom is obliged to serve his father-in-law four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

When they have killed a bear they sing a song, which they begin by thanking the enemy for his arrival, and for his not doing them

any mischief; they then address their thanks to God, who has created beasts for the use of man, and given him strength and address to overcome them. Like the native tribes of America, they have traditions, which prove that their ancestors, in some remote period, must have had knowledge of the bible. Their information of the deluge is this:—All the earth was inhabited before God destroyed it; but in consequence of its being turned topsy-turvey, the water rushed out of the rivers and lakes, overspread the earth, and swallowed up the whole human race—one brother and sister excepted. These God took in his arms, carried to the top of a high mountain, and from them are descended all the nations of the earth. They have a genius for poetry; the Orra Moor and the Rein-Deer song, in the Spectator, are proofs. These were translated from two songs in the Lapland tongue.

SWEDEN.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.
Length 800, Breadth 500 } between { 55° and 70° North latitude. 10° and 30° East longitude.

Boundaries.] THIS country is bounded by the Baltick Sea, the southeast Sound, and the Categate, or Scaggerack on the south and southwest; by the mountains of Norway on the west; by Danish and Russian Lapland on the north; and by Russia east. Next to Russia, Sweden is the largest state in Europe.

Divisions and Possessions.] An authentick account of these, (from Zimmermann) is contained in the following

TABLE.

DIVISIONS, POSSESSIONS.	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Popula. for ev. sq. mile.	CHIEF TOWNS. Number of Inhabitants.
SWEDEN.	230,528	3,000,000		
Divided into Sweden, properly so called and Gothland. Both together,	64,000	2,100,000	33	
1. SWEDEN contains Upland, Soedermanland, Westmanland, Nerike, Dalecarlien.				Stockholm, about 80,000 Upsal univers. and 2d in rank Nykoeping.
2. GOTHLAND contains Ostgothland, Smaeland, Oeland, and Gottland. Westgottland, Wermeland, Dahland, Bohlehn, Sudgothland, viz. Schonen, Halland, Blekingen.				Falun a famous mining place. 7,000 Nerkioping, 8,150. Lynkioping Calmar, trading town. Gothenburg, 12,800.
3. NORDLAND,	95,472	150,000	not yet 2	Lund, univerfity.
4. LAPLAND, divided into 7 districts, called Marken, viz. Jœmteland, Lappmark, Afele, Umea, Pitea, Lulla, Tornea, Kemi.				Helfingborg, near the Sound. Carlfcron, Admiralty feat. Torneai.
5. FINLAND,	48,780	624,000	12	Abo, univerfity, 8,750.
6. The Swedish Part of Pomerania, viz. Pomerania, Island of Rugen, the District of Wifmar.	1,440	100,550	70	Stralfund, 10,840. Griefswald, univerfity. Bergen, (Isle of Rugen) 1,402 Wifmar 6,000
7. In the West-Indies, Sweden obtained in the year 1785, from France, the Island of St. Barthelemi.	30			The whole kingdom contains only 104 towns, 80,250 villages, & 1200 estates of nobility.

*Climate and Seasons.**] "Though Sweden is situated under a rigorous climate, it enjoys a much milder temperature than those countries of Asia and America which have the same latitude. For this advantage it is undoubtedly indebted to the waters with which it is washed and intersected, as well as to that high degree of cultivation to which it has attained." The winter is long and very cold, but dry and clear. The short days are generally enlivened by a splendid sun; and the long nights receive a mild and agreeable light from the moon, the aurora borealis, and the reflection of the snow. "In summer the sun remains so long above the horizon, that the night consists only of a slight twilight; vegetation then acquires its full vigour, and nature seems to regain that time which she has lost during the frosty season." The transition between these seasons is quicker than in more southern climates; and very rapid in the northern provinces. These have scarcely any spring or autumn; but their short summer is very warm, which, with the length of their days, ripens the grain sooner than in the southern. The district of Torno in West-Bothnia, enjoys the pleasing phenomenon of a *midnight sun* for several nights about midsummer, and in the winter solstice they see this luminary but just rising above the horizon. "Thunder is seldom heard in this country. It produces no venomous reptiles; and earthquakes never spread terror and consternation."

Of late years it has been observed, that the spring is colder than formerly, as in the north part of North-America the winters are more rigorous. [*Pinkerton.*]

"The pure and sharp air which the Swedes breathe, renders them vigorous, and preserves them from epidemical diseases. The plague has sometimes made havock amongst them, but it appears that the infection was conveyed to them from the southern countries. They often attain to a very great age: According to a memoir published by Mr. Wargentin, there were lately found during a period of nine or ten years, 2036 men and 3540 women above the age of 90; 212 men and 328 women between 100 and 105; 31 men and 36 women between 106 and 110; 22 men and 19 women between 111 and 120; one man aged 122, and one woman of 127."

Face of the Country, Soil and Productions, Waters and Minerals. "Linnæus reckons that there are in Sweden 1300 species of plants, 200 of which are used in medicine, and 1400 species of animals. Wolves, foxes, hares, birds of prey, moor fowl, cocks of the wood, together with fresh and salt water fish, are found here in great abundance; bears, elks, does, roebucks, sables, beavers, and pole cats, are more uncommon. It has been remarked that no beeches grow beyond Ostrogothia, and no oaks beyond Upland; the birch grows in all the provinces. The pine and the fir, however, form the principal part of those forests with which Sweden is covered; they preserve their verdure during the whole winter, and afford a happy

* The remaining account of Sweden is compiled chiefly from M. Catteau's View of Sweden, published in French, in two Volumes, 1790, and considered as the best account of this kingdom. See also Carey's edition of Guthrie's Grammar, from which the following account is principally taken.

relief to the eye, dazzled by the continual splendour of the snow; they preserve the image of life amidst an almost universal death.

"With regard to mineral productions, Sweden is very rich. Iron is found in many places. The mine of Fahlun produces copper, well known throughout all Europe. This mine is 180 fathoms in depth, and the mineral is a very hard pyrites. The richest silver mine in the country is found at Sala, in the province of Westmania; the mineral consists of cubical wolfram. This mine produces a small quantity of pure silver, some of which has been found also of late years in an iron mine at Wermland, under strata of clay which intersect it. The gold mine, discovered about the middle of this century, at Ædolfors, in Smoland, furnishes only a very small quantity of that metal, which is contained in a calcareous matrix; the miners find sometimes a few pieces of it perfectly pure. This mine is eighty-four fathoms in depth. Besides these, the bowels of the earth abound with lead, marble, alum, lime stone, coal, vitriol, curious petrifications, porphyry, amethysts, loadstone, slate, talk, quicksilver, sulphur, mother-of-pearl, and some other productions of the mineral kingdom.

"The face of the country in Sweden is diversified with a profusion of eminences, hills and mountains. The most remarkable of these, the Sevebergfrygn, is a chain of mountains, which in Westrogothia begins to rise above the level of the sea; it extends toward the north, between Norway and Norland, and separates these two countries by summits covered with eternal snow. According to Mr. Bergman, it stretches as far as the northern part of Asia, and in that quarter of the globe is terminated only by the boundaries of the earth. The mountain of Kinekully, on the banks of lake Wenner, deserves the attention of every traveller throughout Sweden: It consists of a number of terraces rising one above another, the highest of which presents a scene equally rich and variegated. The mountain of Omberg, in Smoland, is so high, that four provinces, six cities and fifty churches may be seen from the top it. This mountain on one side touches lake Wetter, and in digging at the bottom of it, there is found a quarry of lime stone which extends pretty far under the water. These, as well as all the other mountains of Sweden, are composed of gravel, free stone, calcareous stone, slate, different kinds of petrifications, and granite; the basis of a greater part of them is granite, which is so plentiful that it is found in large separate masses, that often rise to a considerable height. Jetteburgh, in Westrogothia, forms a mass of this nature. Taberg, situated in Smoland, is a chain composed entirely of iron ore. There are three chains of the same kind in Swedish Lapland, viz. Kerumavara, Luosavara, and Gellivara.

"The soil of the plains and vallies which lie between the hills and mountains, is very proper for cultivation. The plough is employed also on many of the hills, which by active industry are now converted into fields fit for tillage.

"The waters by which Sweden is washed and intersected are very numerous. Here you find a vast arm of the sea, there an extensive lake; and a little farther, a broad and rapid river, or a foaming and impetuous torrent. The Baltick, which extends along the kingdom,

forming two large gulfs, that of Bothnia and that of Finland, seems to be the grand resource of Sweden. Much has been written on the decrease of the waters of this sea; but the question is not yet determined. The northern sea, or the German ocean, washes the provinces of Scania, Halland Westrogothia and Bohus, under the name of Categate, or Scaggerack. The coasts of the districts bordering on these two seas abound with rocks, islands and promontories, which form a number of gulfs and bays.

"The rivers of Sweden are rapid, and supply abundance of fish; but the numerous rocks and shoals which are found in them, render them unfit for the purposes of navigation. The Dal has a very picturesque fall near Elfcarleby, in Upland, and produces a great plenty of salmon. Gothia is celebrated for the cataracts of Trolhætta, which signifies the *sorcerer's manor*. The river Motala in its course forms a number of beautiful cascades near the city of Norkœping, and, like the Dal, is very abundant in salmon. Lakes of greater or less extent are found in most of the provinces. The Mælar, which waters Upland, Sudermania and Westmania, is seventy-six miles in in length and fifty in breadth; it contains a surprising number of islands; there are reckoned to to be 1290, several of which are six or eight miles in extent, and exhibit a picture of fertility and abundance. The banks of the Mælar are covered with towns, villages, farms and gentlemen's seats. At Stockholm this beautiful lake discharges itself into the Baltick by two rapid currents, one of which is called the northern and the other the southern current. The Hielmar washes Sudermania and Nericia; it is forty-four miles in length, and three or four in breadth. It contains fewer islands than the Mælar, into which it discharges itself near the city of Torshælla. The Wenner, which divides its waters among three provinces, Westrogothia, Dalia and Wermland, is ninety miles in length, and in breadth forty-five. It is much higher than the northern sea, with which it has a communication by the river Gothia; it increases and decreases regularly, abounds with fish, and contains a number of islands. Of all the lakes of Sweden, the Wetter is the most interesting on account of the different phenomena which it exhibits to the observer. Four provinces, Ostrogothia, Westrogothia, Smoland and Nericia, are washed by its waters; its greatest length is 95 miles, and its greatest breadth twenty. It receives a continual supply from the streams of forty rivulets, and is considerably higher than the Baltick, into which it discharges itself by the Motala. Its waters are so clear, that a piece of money may be distinguished in it at the depth of twenty fathoms; in some places its bottom has never yet been discovered, though sounded with a very long line. The Wetter often increases and decreases in a very short space of time: This is said to be occasioned by subterranean winds, and upon such occasions it makes a rumbling kind of noise, and a tempest soon after follows. The same winds, when least expected, break the ice, with which the lake is covered in winter, and the sulphurous and bituminous substances deposited at its bottom forcing a passage, produce explosions, the noise of which is very alarming to those who live in the neighbourhood. In Swedish Lapland there are two lakes, Enara and Kemijarvi, which are remarkable on ac-

count of their extent. The first is 130 miles in length, and the other 200." Mineral springs abound in every province; their number is not less than 360. That of Loca in Westmania, and Medevi in East-Gothia, are very salutary; the latter was, by professor Bergman, preferred to all the rest.

Population, &c.] Bloody wars, with the inseparable neglect of industry, had, till the death of Charles the 12th, greatly retarded the population of Sweden. Since that period, however, it has been promoted with anxious care. The means of subsistence have been increased, salutary measures have been adopted for the preservation of health and life: In every province some physicians are appointed to take care of the poor; inoculation is become general; hospitals have been enlarged and improved; asylums for widows, orphan houses, and lying-in places for indigent or forlorn women, have been established. In Stockholm, the college of medicine has lately prepared a house for a free inoculation; and publick midwives cannot practise there without previous examination. The common paupers, all over the country, have competent provision in their parishes, and their number will be small while the common people preserve their healthy constitution, frugality and innocence.

"In order to ascertain the exact state of the population of the kingdom, the states, in 1741, created a remarkable institution, highly worthy of being imitated in every other country. This institution, called *the commission of registers*, is entrusted with the care of collecting and comparing all the registers of marriages, births and deaths, in Sweden; it corresponds with every town and parish, and distributes to the magistrates and clergy forms of registers divided into several tables.

"The first table contains births, deaths and marriages in general; the second deaths, and the third the sum total of the inhabitants. The two first tables are accompanied with the number of legitimate and illegitimate children; that of double or triple births, and that of divorces. To these are also added the ages of those women who are delivered; the ages of those who marry; the sex and age of those who die; the causes of their death; the diseases prevalent at each season, &c. &c. Mr. Wargentin having found, by the increase in eight dioceses, that between 1775 and 1780, the number of inhabitants had been augmented 89,000, thence concluded in a memoir, presented to the academy of sciences at Stockholm, that the fourteen dioceses which compose the kingdom, had gained an increase of 200,000 souls, from 1772 to 1782; and that the number of inhabitants at the latter period, might be considered as amounting to nearly three millions, including 100,400 in the German possessions. Population is sufficiently numerous in the southern provinces; but it decreases in proportion as we advance northwards, two or three persons often occupying a square league. Some of the northern provinces have, however, increased considerably in population of late years. Norland has experienced a happy revolution in some of its districts. In the year 1729, there were in all Finland only 142,600 inhabitants; but at present there are above 600,000. The whole population of Sweden is now above three millions, of which the people in the country make eight ninths.

Inhabitants, Manners and Customs.] "Though Sweden is covered with rocks, woods and mountains, its inhabitants are mild and peaceable. Theft, murder, and atrocious crimes in general, are very uncommon amongst them; and even in war, they do not appear sanguinary. Every traveller who traverses their country, pays a tribute of gratitude to their hospitality. Under the most simple external appearance, they conceal a profound judgment, an acute and delicate genius, and often an active and intrepid spirit. They long made a conspicuous figure by their military exploits, and they have since proved, that they are equally fit for the arts of peace. They are fond of travelling; but at the same time, they love their country, never forget it, and and always long to see it again." They unite love for liberty with a zeal for civil order: Without servile homage for royalty, they have always borne the warmest affection and highest veneration for those kings who were worthy of the throne. Probity and candour are general characteristicks. Law suits are very rare in country places, and generally finished without the aid of lawyers. The only vice, which in some degree may be called national, is an intemperate use of spirituous liquors, which, in many cases, proves destructive to health, property and morals. The higher classes are generally free from this; but many of them are corrupted by that love of pomp and sensuality, which prevails in other countries, with their necessary attendants, poverty, diseases, frauds, celibacy, and illicit connexions.

The fashions and customs imported from France, always obtain at Stockholm a decided preference; and have caused much mischief. Other great cities have more or less imitated the modish vices of the metropolis; but as yet they have not penetrated into the interior parts. These frequently present charming scenes of a virtuous and elegant country life, similar to those so feelingly painted in Thomson's Seasons.

Fondness for convivial pleasures, musick and dancing, is a leading trait in the Swedish character; and no nation has better mingled festive joy with moral sentiment. Their weddings are celebrated with the most affecting ceremonies; those of the more opulent farmers exhibit a show of rural hospitality, plenty, ceremonious festivity, and cordial hilarity. The young couple, attended by a chosen set of their youthful friends, a band of musicians, and a numerous retinue of neighbours and relations, repair to the parochial church, to give, before the altar, a reciprocal vow of sacred love: A canopy of silk is held over the flowing curls of the swain and the splendid crown of his bride, while the priest chants the nuptial benediction, accompanied with the melodious choir and the solemn organ: Arrived, under joyful acclamations, at the bridal house, which is adorned with flowers and ever-greens, they listen to a fresh sacerdotal benediction, and an excellent hymn, sung by the whole company: The sumptuous banquet then commences with copious libations and specifick tunes for every toast; and is succeeded by a variety of dances: The guests, sometimes 150 in number, are frequently entertained for five days. The poorer people make proportional exertions, and agreeably to an old laudable custom, are aided by their friends and neighbours. Christening and churching are likewise productive of a festive day. Mow-

ing, harvest, and other extraordinary work is performed by the joint labour of one or two villages, and always rewarded with the feast and dance. Christmas is kept for two weeks between publick worship and social enjoyment : Other festivals have their due share.

Superstition is a foible which the Swedes have in common with their neighbours, more or less, according to education and circumstances. The inhabitants of mountains and forests have many accounts of invisible beings, which, however, partake less of the terrible than the romantick.

Preservation against the cold of winter, especially necessary in the northern parts, is well understood. Pelisses, cloaks, great coats, caps, and boots lined with fur, are of excellent use. " The greater part of the houses are of wood ; but when well constituted and kept in good repair, they are warmer than those built of brick or stone ; they likewise contract less moisture. The seams of the windows are daubed over with pitch or cement, and double ones are sometimes employed : but these are attended with a sensible inconvenience in winter, by rendering the apartments too dark. The stoves are constructed in such a manner as is most suitable to the country : the tubes are so twisted as to make the heat circulate, and to prevent it from being too soon dissipated : by means of a lever, the air may be condensed or rarified at pleasure. Wood is not dear, and little care is employed to save it. The price of provisions is moderate ; but the case is not the same with labour and objects of luxury."

The lower classes of people live principally upon hard rye bread, salted and dried fish, milk, peas, cabbage, turnips, &c. with a proportion of pork, beef, salted mutton and goat's flesh, butter and cheese. Beer is their common beverage, and very cheap. The tables of the opulent are covered with a variety of meat, fresh fish, wild fowl, and made dishes, often to an excess of luxurious refinement. The consumption of wine is very great in Sweden. The use of tea, coffee and chocolate is every day extended.

The Swedes have a national dress, adopted in 1777, with the laudable design of repressing luxury in the article of clothes. The men wear a close coat, very wide breeches, strings in their shoes, a girdle, a round hat, and a cloak. But the great body of yeomanry, who have no need of this regulation, dress at option, in their neat simplicity. Their general competency is greatly owing to contempt of tyrannick fashions. They partake, however, of the national taste for plate ; many poor cottages have their small silver cups : easy farmers display a variety of plate : opulent families, both in towns and the country, have very splendid silver services.

The several provinces present various shades of the general character, manners and customs. The Dalecarlians, " under a rigorous sky, amidst mountains covered with snow, during eight months of the year, accustom themselves to the severest labours, and fear no fatigue. Placed upon an ungrateful and barren soil, they have often no other nourishment than bread, composed of the coarsest meal, mixed with the bark of trees, gruel seasoned only with water and salt, or dried fish. These people emigrate, in great numbers, to seek for a maintenance in the more opulent provinces ; and above all in the

capital : They are employed in publick as well as in private works : And in whatever they undertake, they show as much intelligence as honesty. While they are absent from their native country, they observe the strictest economy in their manner of living, and endeavour to save enough to enable them to return, and to supply their wants, which are not numerous." In great dangers they have been a national bulwark. Under the banners of Gustavus Vasa, they delivered Sweden from a foreign yoke. In the alarming crisis of 1789, their generous valour supported Gustavus III. against a powerful combination of external foes and internal traitors.

Agriculture.] " In travelling through Sweden, one finds fields well cultivated and covered with rye, wheat, barley and oats. Meadows are not wanting, some of which are natural, others artificial ; and they produce excellent grass ; but they can be mown only once. Vegetables of every kind are known and reared ; potatoes grow in abundance, and the people begin to be fond of them. Proprietors of land, who are in easy circumstances, have orchards, kitchen gardens, hot beds, and green houses, and display on their tables cherries, pears, plums and melons, which would do no dishonour to the southern countries. All the common fruit trees will thrive in most of the provinces. The fine burgamot pear, and the high flavoured Astracan apple, ripen beyond the 61st degree. As yet, however, large orchards are rare among the common farmers, but they rise and extend very fast.

" For some years past, the Swedes have applied with great ardour to the cultivation of hemp and flax. Tobacco, so highly valued by all the people of the north, is also greatly esteemed in Sweden ; the fields in the neighbourhood of the capital, and of some other cities, are entirely covered with it. Bees, too, are not neglected, but the climate seems to be unfavourable for breeding them.

" The half of those vast territories that compose Sweden is occupied by forests, lakes, marshes, rocks and underwood. Rich proprietors, however, improve a great deal by blowing up rocks, clearing away woods, draining marshes, and rooting up bushes. By these means, fields and meadows increase every year.

" Their cattle are small, as is the case in all the other northern regions : And they would be more so, were not the breed mended by a mixture with those of other countries. They cannot feed on grass for more than five or six months. During the rest of the year, they are confined to their stalls, and cost the proprietors vast labour." The milk is, however, superior to that of warm countries, and that of goats makes excellent cheese.

" Scania, Ostrogothia and Finland, seem to be the provinces most susceptible of those improvements in agriculture, which are essential to the subsistence of man. The soil and climate of Scania are the same as those of the northern districts of Germany : All kinds of grain ripen properly in that province ; and the cattle attain to a greater size than in other parts of Sweden. Ostrogothia is a delightful country, intersected with hills and lakes ; its inhabitants are intelligent and active. Finland abounds with fertile plains and excellent pastures ; the soil there has yielded sometimes twenty and thirty fold.

In the northern part of it there are vast districts, which the nearest villagers took possession of, without a legal title, and which they could not turn to any advantage. Government, however, ordered them to be accurately surveyed ; and having left to the ancient proprietors an extent proportioned to their means, converted the rest into new farms, subject to new rents ; but those who possess them are exempted from paying them for twelve years. Smoland supports itself by its pastures. Upland, Sudermania, Westmania and Nericia, have an ungrateful soil ; but the industry of the inhabitants assists the efforts of nature, and for the most part procures them the necessaries of life. In other provinces, the inhabitants struggle against obstacles, sometimes with success, but often with great loss ; in some years they are obliged to mix the roots and the bark of trees with the coarse meal which they use."

The rapid increase of cultivation, with the late arrangements for permanent magazines, will, no doubt, in future secure ample supplies of grain. The illustrious society, called Patriotick, has made the promotion of agriculture in every branch a principal object. It distributes every year aids and honorary rewards to those who improve their freeholds or tenures. Petty tenants, soldiers, labourers and dairy maids, partake of these : And such is the spirit of honour among the poorest, that they value a silver necklace, or an embroidered hatband, received in this way, more than weighty coin.

Manufactures.] The silk manufactures are indifferent. Those that employ cotton and camel's hair, thrive better, and are somewhat benefited by the naturalization of the Angora goat.

" Since the English, Spanish and German breeds of sheep have multiplied, and since the cultivation of flax and hemp has been extended, broadcloths, fine and coarse linens, sail cloth and cordage, have been manufactured with success, and in considerable quantities. The produce of broadcloth, manufactured in Sweden, may amount to 500,000 rix-dollars annually : Spain and Portugal furnish wool, which must be mixed with that of the country. The fine Swedish cloth is much esteemed ; and large quantities are exported. The peasants manufacture those woollen stuffs which they use for their dresses, and with which they clothe their soldiers. The peasants also, and above all, those of Westrogothia, Norland and Finland, manufacture the principal part of the linen cloths, which are exceedingly good, and sold at a moderate price. Administration has opened in the capital, and in some provinces, publick workhouses, destined for the relief of the poor, who are employed in manufacturing linen and thread. There are paper manufactories in different parts of the kingdom ; but they do not supply enough for daily consumption. The Swedes are well acquainted with the art of dressing leather : Considerable quantities are, however, imported from Russia and England. The gloves of Scania are in great request, and many of them are sold in the neighbouring countries. Sugar bake-houses, salt works, starch, powder, tobacco and soap manufactories, together with oil mills, have been established of late years. In the ports where the herrings are caught, innumerable hands are employed in extracting oil from them. The porcelain and stone ware of Marie-

berg and Rorstrand, in the neighbourhood of the capital, are inferior in quality to those of China and some countries of Europe. Glass-houses have not yet attained to a high degree of perfection in Sweden. The Swedes make a respectable figure as gilders, goldsmiths, jewellers, and watchmakers; and they have applied, for some time past, and with considerable success, to embroidery."

The mines are great sources of riches. The furnaces and forges produce yearly 400,000 scheppund,* of which about 100,000 are afterwards brought to various degrees of refinement. "Anchors are forged in various places; iron guns, bombs, and grenades, are fabricated at Stafsjæ, Oker and Finspong; brass guns are cast at Stockholm; and fusees, sword blades, carabines, and other instruments of destruction, are made at Norkœping, Jœnkœping, and in the capital. Manufactories of iron plates, tin plates, steel, iron ware, nails, and various kinds of utensils, have increased very much of late years. The city of Eskilstuna, in Sudermania, is remarkable for the manufactories of steel and cast iron, which government have established there. On this account, the city has obtained several privileges; and the workmen, who distinguish themselves by their industry, receive establishments according to their merit. There are several of them who display great ingenuity, and whose works are almost as well finished as those of England."

The produce of the copper mines, of which that of Fahlun, in Dalecarlia, yields the greatest part, is about 6,000 schp. of pure metal. The manufactories of brass and brass wire consume annually 2000 schp. The rest is exported, or converted into sheets for coppering vessels—into very thin plates for covering houses—into various utensils—and into coin. Saltpetre works are found in every province. Alum works, powder mills, with manufactories of vitriol and red lead, produce a surplus for exportation. Sweden has four or five silver mines: but the old one of Sahla, in Westmania, is the principal, though it yields at present only 1500 or 2000 pounds per annum. The gold mine at Ædelfors, in Smoland, produces only five or six thousand ducats, which hardly defray the cost of working. The miners in the kingdom are reckoned at 25,600

Foreign and internal Commerce.] The foreign commerce has increased rapidly of late years. "They carry it on entirely themselves, and their flag is known on the most distant shores. Their vessels, which are well built, are numerous, and procure them considerable gain for freight, and by coasting voyages. By the act of navigation, published in 1738, foreign nations cannot send to Sweden, in their own bottoms, but their own productions, or those of their colonies; and they are subjected besides to certain duties, which are not paid by the natives of the country.

"The mines, forests and waters of Sweden, furnish the principal articles of exportation. It exports one year with another, between 300 and 330,000 schp. of iron. Bar iron, pig iron, iron hoops, steel, wrought iron, cannons, and iron bullets, constitute this lucrative part of foreign commerce; the price of bar iron is between five and six

* 7½ Scheppund make a ton.

rix-dollars per schp. The Swedes have been apprehensive of being outrivalled by the Russians in this branch ; but the acknowledged superiority of the Swedish iron has always kept up its price, and the demand for it continues to be very great." The copper, in bars, plates, and sheets, is also in great demand ; as are brass and steel.

" The iron and copper entered at the different ports of Sweden, in order to be exported, produced, from the year 1760 to 1799, the sum of 46,152,962 rix-dollars. The Swedes export annually about 150,000 dozen of planks ; 2,474 dozen of joists ; 4,550 beams ; 97,000 tons of pitch and tar, and 4000 tons of wood ashes and pot ashes. The exportation of herrings amounts, one year with another, to 160,000 barrels ; that of herring oil increases more and more, and brings an anual gain of five or six thousand rix-dollars. The articles of re-exportation are not very numerous : The most important are furnished by the East-India company.

" If Sweden possesses many objects of exportation, those which it imports are equally numerous. Some of these are absolutely necessary ; but others of them are sought for only in consequence of those factitious wants created by luxury, which are daily increasing in every country of the world. Sweden imports sometimes 500,000 barrels of grain ; it has occasion also for 280,000 barrels of salt one year with another ; and it expends immense sums for wines, stuffs, leather, tallow, hemp, sugar, coffee, tea, tobacco, and other aricles of provision. It has been proved by the custom-house registers, that the corn, coffee, tea and tobacco, annually imported, cost more than a million rix-dollars.

" The Swedish ships frequent also the Mediterranean. They carry to Italy and the Levant the principal articles which they export, above all, artillery ; and bring back salt, fruits, spiceries, cotton, and cotton and linen cloth : In such voyages they bring great profit to their owners for freight.

" A new East-India company has been formed, which obtained a charter for twenty years, and like the former engaged to pay 12,500 rix-dollars to government. Foreigners as well as natives, may purchase a share in this company : they receive every necessary security. The Swedish vessels which perform the voyage to China, are generally of four hundred lasts burden.

The acquisition of the island of St. Bartholomew, in 1785, gave rise to a West-India company. Its charter is dated October 31, 1786 : it pays nothing to the crown, and forms a fund by subscription. The island of St. Bartholomew has a governour, and a garrison : a council, of which the governour is chief, has been also established there, to second the operations of this rising company.

Principal Cities.] Sweden, on a territory much larger than that of France, contains only 105 cities ; many of these are small ; and the interior districts of the north have none. This indicates a want of industry ; but not in the degree that many would infer ; because the most necessary mechanicks are settled in every parish ; and the greater number of country labourers and farmers practise several trades with considerable ingenuity. It is a proverb, that *the Swedes are born smiths and carpenters.* Nor is real poverty common in the uncul-

tivated parts ; because the few inhabitants have extensive pastures, with plenty of fish, game and peltry. A cottager on the borders of Lapland can, at pleasure, feast on a fine pike, or salmon, and pretty often on a keder, orre, or hierpe.* The Swedes also love a country life ; and many gentlemen reside constantly on their estates ; hence magnificent seats are often found in the neighbourhood of inconsiderable towns.

Stockholm, the metropolis of Sweden, N. lat. 59° 20′, E. lon. 18° 8′, is built upon seven high islands, between the Baltick and the lake Mælar, surrounded by mountains, woods and gardens, and exhibits views equally striking and delightful. Its circumference is thirteen miles ; and it has 80,000 inhabitants. Among the principal edifices are the nobility's hall, the city hotel, the exchange, the bank, and the theatre of the national opera. Some of the churches make a fine appearance, and have precious paintings, silver vessels, organs, bells, &c. The royal palace consists of a large square, with two wings, and stands upon an eminence that commands a view of the whole city ; the interior part displays great elegance and taste. This city has for 400 years been the seat of government, and gradually become the centre of all its branches. The several boards of chancery, commerce, treasury, war, admiralty, &c. are established here, with the national bank, the mint, the academy of sciences, and other illustrious institutions. The diets also assemble here. These advantages, with its central and maritime situation, have made it the first commercial place in the kingdom. "The trade of Stockholm employs six or seven hundred vessels. The harbour, though the avenues to it are rendered difficult by innumerable rocks and islands, possesses great advantages : ships there find themselves in the heart of the city. The custom house is situated close to it, and vessels can be unladed with the greatest facility." Spacious warehouses, filled with the principal articles for exportation, and piles of beams, planks, rafters, &c. touch the sea on one side, and the lake on the other.

Gottenburg is the next in rank, both in trade and population, which is estimated at 18,000 ; 20,000 according to Pinkerton. This city, situated between the Baltick and the northern sea, has this advantage over the capital, that its port is seldom shut up by the ice.

"A great many Englishmen, Germans and Dutchmen, have settled at Gottenburg, under the auspices of civil and religious liberty. The trade carried on in this city employs from five to to six hundred vessels ; the most considerable article which it exports, is herring oil.

"Norkœping, in Ostrogothia, has an excellent harbour, exports a great deal of brass, and disperses throughout the southern provinces several necessary articles, which its vessels bring from France and other countries." It contains 9000 inhabitants, and carries on great manufactories in brass, copper, arms, cloth, &c.

Obo, or Abo, the capital of Finland, has a population of 9000, with a considerable trade in the produce of that country. One of the

* These birds are, respectively, of the size of turkies, common fowl and pheasants.

national universities, and supreme courts, are also established there Gefle is the best city in Norland, and contains 6000 people.

In the south the following cities are most remarkable for population and wealth; Carlscrona, with 900 inhabitants; Calmar, Lund, with a university; Landscrona, Molmo, Christianstadt, with 5000 inh. In the west, Fahlun, a famous mining place, with 7000 inhabitants; Westerohs, nearly as populous; Christianahamn and Wennersborg are worthy of notice. Upsal, distant fifty miles from Stockholm, is well known for its university, has a stately castle, the largest cathedral church in the country, and the see of the archbishop, and is next in rank to Stockholm.

Those of the Swedish towns which are not maritime, a few excepted, enjoy a pleasant situation on some lake or river.

Of the German territory, Stralsund is the capital. It is a commercial city, with 11,000 inhabitants.

Language.] "The language spoken by the Swedes is little cultivated in other countries; but it deserves to be better known. It is characterised by force and energy: and though it has not that softness and flexibility which are found in other languages, they are not, however, incompatible with its genius." It has a great affinity with the Saxon part of the English, with fewer words of Latin origin. Though it is less copious, it has a clearer tone by a better mixture of vowels, and by their more determined sound; which also makes the pronunciation more easy. The late professor Ihre has displayed the analogy and etymology of his mother tongue, in the Glossarium Sweo-Gothicum, a master-piece of erudition and criticism. Other writers have followed his example. The principal object of the Swedish academy, lately founded, is to improve the language. It intends to publish a dictionary and a grammar.

Religion.] The Swedes commenced christians in the ninth century. Lutheranism was introduced early in the sixteenth, and finally established in 1593, by the synod of Upsal. The reformation was not attended in Sweden by the tumults and persecutions of some countries; because it was gradual, and preserved many agreeable rites of the catholick church, such as choral musick, statues, pictures, and many other church ornaments. How far religious toleration extends at present, may be seen from the following decree of the states, in 1778.

"Having taken this matter into consideration, we decree, that the free exercise of religion shall be granted in Sweden, under the following conditions:

"I. That the people of a foreign religion, who wish to settle in Sweden, shall not be permitted to hold any office under government.

"II. That they shall not open publick schools, for the purpose of teaching their doctrine.

"III. That they shall not send missionaries, either into the kingdom or out of it.

"IV. That they shall not be permitted to found convents, of any sect whatever.

"V. That the Jews shall open no synagogues but at Stockholm, and a few more principal cities of the kingdom, where a watchful eye may be kept over them.

"VI. That they shall make no publick procession, for fear of offending the weak.

"VII. Such Swedes as abandon their religion, shall be proceeded against according to the laws of the country."*

As yet few of the Swedes incline to schism, from these causes—the national religion is warm, but mild and easy; publick worship is ceremonious and agreeable; the clergy are generally faithful pastors, and mix with their flock in social enjoyments; the church is neither proud nor opulent, the prelates assuming no title of lordship, and the other ministers having various degrees of decent competency, without luxury or abject poverty. The parishes are 2537, the priests 1378, with 134 vicars, and 192 inspectors. Some of the parishes are so extensive as to receive but little advantage from their minister. One in Eastern Bothnia is 150 miles long and 48 broad; one in Lapland is still larger. [*Pinkerton.*]

Publick Education and Learning.] The Swedes can generally read, and the greater part write. All the towns, and some parts of the country, have schools, in which arithmetick, with the elements of geography and history are taught, without the toil of dead languages, needless in the common walks of industry. The poorest children receive a religious and moral education, from parochial schoolmasters and the clergy; of which the rudiments are taught in a general catechism, fraught with excellent practical rules. They also learn musick from the national hymn book, which has many good compositions, with fine melody. "Convinced that publick education has influence in the most direct manner on publick felicity, government have established a commission for the express purpose of bringing to perfection so important an object. This commission sits at Stockholm. There is also in that capital a society for the improvement of education, who publish elementary books, and other useful works. This society was first established by Mr. Gœrvell, librarian to the king."

Scholastick erudition was cultivated in the three last centuries, and great progress made in the sciences and polite literature. The fame of Linnæus will remain while natural history shall find votaries. This great man adored the Supreme Being, and was so strongly impressed with the idea of omnipresence, that he wrote over the door of his study, *innocui vivite, numen adest.*

Some fine specimens of eloquence have been delivered in the Swedish diets, the universities, and academies. Taste in devices and emblems is much cultivated; as appears in the treatise of Sahlstedt on this subject. As a journalist, Mr. Gœrvell, librarian to the late king, has great merit; he has published many volumes.

The Swedish academy of sciences at Stockholm directs its attention to the most useful inquiries in medicine, natural history, mathematicks and political economy: Since its institution in 1738, many volumes have been published. The academy of belles lettres, history and antiquities, was formed by Louisa Ulrica. Her son, the late king, founded, in 1786, another academy for the culture of the language,

* Banishment, and a loss of all civil privileges, is the punishment prescribed by the law in such cases.

with pensions and funds for annual prizes. Other literary societies are formed at Upsala, Gottenburg, &c. and a physiographical one at Lund.

Architecture flourishes in the improved provinces: Many strangers of taste are surprised to find so many stately edifices in a country so near the pole. Sweden has some excellent painters and sculptors. The Swedish theatre is of late much improved both in composers and actors; but its pleasures are confined to the greater cities. The whole nation has a taste for musick; it is very generally taught. The common people have some simple but pleasing instruments, with many martial and pathetick songs in the style of Ossian.

The university at Upsal has long been the first seminary in the north. Its library, botanical garden, observatory, economical theatre, and chemical laboratory, are worthy of notice. The professors are about twenty; among them are teachers of political economy, the national constitution and laws, and of agriculture. Masters of languages, and the fine arts, are also on the establishment, with a good riding school. It has 500 students. The universities of Lunden and Obo have 300 each. Beside these there are 14 colleges and 12 library academies, most of which publish memoirs of their transactions. All the seminaries of learning, with the common schools, are supported by the publick, which extends a plain education to the poorest classes, and a learned one to all who can afford to attend the half yearly terms: even this is facilitated at the universities by certain funds. By these means indigent young men of talents frequently rise to very eminent stations in society.

The royal libraries at Stockholm and Drottningholm are well stored with excellent works. The cabinets of natural history at the latter place, at Upsal, and that of the academy of sciences, are very valuable. Mr. Carleson has a museum, containing 800 species of birds.

Civil and Criminal Laws.] The criminal laws display a striking character of humanity and justice. The punishment of death is, in most cases, exchanged for heavy fines, whipping and hard labour. Criminals condemned to die, are generally beheaded. Very atrocious crimes are punished with greater severity; but of these there are few instances. Information against accomplices does not procure impunity. Imperfect proof cannot condemn.

Territorial judges, assisted by twelve freeholders, administer justice in the country. Cities and corporate towns have tribunals composed of burgomasters and citizens. Appeals from any of these are carried to the four supreme courts, which are stationed in convenient places, and, when necessary, send some of their members to examine facts on the spot. These must confirm all sentences of death. "Judges must strictly follow the spirit of the laws; and they are forbidden, under pain of fine and dismission, to interpret them as interest or their passions may dictate. If, by such a perversion, they deprive a citizen of his honour, or life, they are subjected to the same sentence which they pronounced against him. Established custom may serve them as a guide; but only in cases respecting which the code is entirely silent. The chancellor of the law is invested with the right of watch-

ing over the conduct of the judges, and prosecuting them, if they act contrary to the duties of their office. On the opening of the tribunals, the judges assist at divine service; and the minister at the altar reminds them, in a solemn manner, of the duties which they have to discharge.

"If it happen that a person of illustrious birth, or a whole body, is guilty of any offence against the king, the kingdom, or the crown, and if this offence cannot be tried by any of the ordinary tribunals, a tribunal of the kingdom is then established, in which the king presides, and in which the most distinguished personages of the state have a right to sit. The chancellor of justice is advocate in behalf of the publick, and the oldest of the secretaries of revision holds the book of precedents. While sentence is pronounced, the doors are always open.

"On viewing the publick prisons of Sweden, one readily perceives the characters of a government that listens to the voice of humanity. Several very salutary alterations might still be made in these prisons; but those who see them, find more reason to lament the crimes of the persons they contain, than the severity of the treatment which they experience while they wait with anxiety for their sentence."

The Swedish laws of inheritance are remarkably wise and just; by their happy influence great inequality of property is prevented; and Sweden has a greater number of small proprietors than any other country in Europe.

Military Establishments.] The Swedish army consists of national troops and foreign infantry. The latter is computed at about 12,000, the whole army at 48,000. [*Pinkerton.*]

The country is guarded by a sufficient number of strong fortresses. Gottenburg, Warberg and Bohus are the barriers toward Norway; toward the Sound in Scania, there are Malmoe, Christianstadt and Landscrona: Louisa and Sweaburg are the barriers against Russia. Waxholm and Fredericksburg defend the port of Stockholm. There are arsenals in all the fortresses. "That of Stockholm contains a great number of trophies taken from the enemies of the kingdom, at those periods when the Swedes sought nothing but battle, and never quitted the field except when crowned with the laurels of victory. Several pieces of the armour of the conqueror of Leipsick are also preserved here, and that of the hero of Narva. In the hat, worn by Charles XII. at Frederickshall, the hole made by that fatal ball, which in a moment overturned all his vast projects, is still to be seen.

"The coasts of the Baltick are so filled with islands and rocks, that ships of the line cannot navigate them. About the middle of this century, a zealous citizen, general Ehrensværd, proposed to government to form a fleet of flat bottomed vessels, which might sail on these shores with safety, and serve for disembarking troops. This fleet, called also the army fleet, on account of its utility for transportation, is divided between Stockholm and Sweaburg, and consists of about sixty flat bottomed vessels. Some of them are real gallies; the rest have the name of *tonroma*, and are constructed upon principles known to very few."

Since 1792 they have not been able to display more than 15 ships of the line. [*Pinkerton.*]

"Sweden procures its sailors from the maritime provinces, and maintains them upon the same footing as the national land forces; their number lately has been increased to 15,000."

A fund for decayed sailors is formed, by annual deductions from pay, and the grant of certain duties. Invalids in the land army have also small pensions.

Revenue.] The revenue is computed at 1,500,000*l.* sterling, the national debt at 10,000,000*l.* This debt is chiefly due to the people of Hamburg. [*Pinkerton.*]

Government.] In 1772, Gustavus III. effected an astonishing revolution, which was accomplished in three days, and without a drop of blood. Opinions are widely different on this and similar events, but it is generally agreed, that a very great majority of the nation, wearied of a miserable anarchy, sighed for an energetick government; that the greater part, attached to monarchy by principle or habit, had great confidence in the splendid abilities and virtues of Gustavus, and that his lenity to his most implacable foes was beyond example.

The constitution by him offered, and received by the states, who were assembled at the time, is a high toned monarchy, but not at all absolute. The states retained the exclusive power of granting supplies. Their consent is necessary for enacting or abrogating laws, for altering the value of the coin, and for making offensive war. They are sole trustees, guarantees and managers of the national bank. They examine, and every diet, by a committee, the state of the finances, in order (as the 50th article is worded) to be convinced, that the publick money has been expended for the good of the country.

Besides, the crown has few means of corruption, because the principal branches of publick revenue are appropriated to permanent objects; and because all offices both civil and military (those of confidence excepted) are held during good behaviour.

The necessity of a strong executive power to defend the country against a league between powerful foes and formidable malecontents, prompted the diet of 1789 to make these alterations in the constitution. The king can make offensive war. The senate is abolished. The supreme tribunal of justice, where the king presides with only two votes, must consist of both commoners and nobles. Commoners have an equal right to all civil and military offices and to the acquirement of those privileged landed estates, called *satarier*. These articles, with others, are set forth in the act of union and safety.

The states of Sweden are represented by the four orders of the nobility, clergy, burghers, and peasants, (or more properly, yeomen.) The eldest son of each family sets in the diet, under the name of *caput familiæ*. The clergy choose deputies in proportion to the number of parishes. The bishops and other prelates sit in the same house with these, and have only simple votes. The burghers of the respective cities and towns choose representatives in proportion to population and wealth: Stockholm has ten. The freeholders in the country elect, in a similar manner, according to the value of the respective districts.

The four orders have separate houses: The decisions of their majorities respectively form their votes; and the consent of three houses

decides upon all affairs merely national, but cannot violate the constitutional rights of a dissentient order.

Political Interest.] The gigantick power of Russia is a formidable neighbour to Sweden. It may attempt acquisitions in Finland, not so much for extending an immense territory, as for gaining a wider shore on the Baltick. It may also take advantage of those dissensions so natural in free states. Yet while the Swedes preserve a patriotick union and their old valour, they will be safe. The rocks and waters of the frontiers make a tolerable barrier; and in case of need, the regular army would be aided by a hundred thousand militia. Since Denmark has no further hope of recovering its lost provinces, its true interest is a good neighbourship.

As a maritime power, Sweden will support its commercial independence. On this principle it formed, in concert with Russia and Denmark, the armed neutrality in the late war between Great-Britain and the United States of America. Its occasional treaties with distant powers will principally have in view the balance of power in Europe, and especially in the north: This accounts for its connection with the Ottoman empire, as the Asiatick neighbour of Russia.

History.] The ancient Goths, joined with other northern swarms, subdued the Roman empire in Europe; The kingdom of the East Goths, in Italy, lasted 60, and that of the West Goths, in Spain, 300 years. A little before the christian era, Sigge, afterwards called Oden, from the north east of Asia, conquered the then inhabited part of Sweden, and erected an empire, of which Upsala was, for many centuries, the political and hierarchick seat. The provincial governours were, however, generally tributary princes; frequently at war with each other, and against the upper king, as he was styled. The remoter and larger provinces were not incorporated before the 11th century. Birger Farl, regent of the kingdom, founded Stockholm in 1252. Magnus, a son of this excellent man, established salutary laws, restrained the pride of the grandees, and was greatly beloved by the people: He got the surname of *Ladulas*, (or barn lock) because his just and vigorous administration secured their property.

After many contests with Denmark, a union of the three northern crowns was effected by Margaret; but her successors treated the Swedes with injustice, and often with cruelty: being frequently aided by traitors among the nobility and the prelates, whose wealth and power had become exorbitant in the progress of christianity. After many struggles against combined tyrants, with variable success; the unfortunate Swedes experienced all the horrors of slavery, from the monster Christian, who, in cool rage, massacred 200 of the principal men in Stockholm, Nov. 8, 1520.

Gustavus Vasa escaped from innumerable dangers into the mountains of Dalecarlia, and, by his persuasive eloquence, roused the patriotick valour of the inhabitants. Supported by them, and other brave Swedes, who flocked to his banners, he defeated the Danes, and expelled them from every part of the kingdom. "For this service the states appointed him regent, in 1521, and king, in 1523. The union of Calmar was dissolved forever, and Sweden recovered its independence. The new monarch preserved the senate and the four or-

ders, whom he assembled on important occasions. He distinguished his reign by an ardent and enlightened zeal for the prosperity of the state. He caused the sceptre to be declared hereditary in his family, in 1544. He died in 1560, and left behind him the reputation of a great man.

Gustavus was succeeded by his youngest son, Erick XIV. who did not possess the same qualities as his father. This monarch became a prey to a brutal kind of melancholy, which occasioned his ruin. His brother John easily supplanted a prince who had imbrued his hands in the blood of his subjects, and who was considered as the scourge of the kingdom; Erick, therefore, was deposed, and being thrown into prison, was there poisoned by order of John. John died in 1572, very little regretted, because he was unworthy of the esteem of his subjects. Charles, duke of Sudermania, the youngest of Gustavus's sons, caused himself to be elected regent of the kingdom. Sigismund, king of Poland, undertook to conquer Sweden; but the duke defeated his army, and afterwards mounted the throne. The reign of this prince was severe and often cruel. Charles was harsh, sanguinary and violent. He died during a paroxysm of passion.

Gustavus Adolphus succeeded him in 1611. He was equally great in peace and war, and showed himself a model for heroes and kings. He died in 1632. His youngest daughter, Christiana, succeeded him. She had a romantick taste for classical erudition and the fine arts; but she lavished the publick treasury upon favourites, and quitted her throne, her country and her religion, in 1654.

Charles Gustavus, her cousin, became successor. His reign was short, and splendidly warlike. He died suddenly in 1660, at Gottenburg.

His son, Charles XI. was then only five years of age. He gained the affections of the inferior orders, triumphed over the nobility, and became absolute sovereign in 1680.

He died in 1697, and was succeeded by his minor son, the famous Charles XII. The history of no prince is better known than that of this hero. He was killed by a cannon shot, at the siege of Frederickshall, in Norway, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-six years of age. It has been supposed that Charles was not in reality killed by a shot from the walls of Frederickshall, but by a pistol from one of those about him. Charles was temperate, sober, chaste, and faithful in his promises, but his obstinacy and want of prudence were fatal to Sweden.

When the states assembled, they decreed the crown to his sister Ulrica Eleonora, on condition of renouncing the sovereignty, but by her request transferred it to her husband Frederick, landgrave of Hesse Cassel, who renounced several more of the royal prerogatives. On the death of Frederick in 1751, Adolphus Frederick mounted the throne, with Louisa Ulrica of Prussia. Adolphus died suddenly in 1771. He was a pattern of domestick virtues, but unequal to the task of ruling between turbulent parties.

Gustavus III. his son, with indefatigable care, carried a reforming hand through all the departments of publick administration: The civil and criminal code were essentially improved; and judges were

taught, by exemplary corrections, to respect the rights of their lowest fellow citizens. The army was disciplined and better provided for: The navy rose from its long decay: Paper was changed into solid coin: The nation recovered its independence and reputation. By frequent, and often unexpected visits, through his extensive country, he could see, hear and feel its wants. His leisure hours were not wasted in the lap of luxury, or in the ferocious chase, but employed in cultivating the belles lettres and the fine arts; of which he was a connoisseur and a liberal patron. All this, with graceful manners and an amiable affability, made him for several years exceedingly popular. But clouds began to obscure this bright horizon of Sweden. Some discontent arose among the people from the monopoly of the domestick distilleries, which the king assumed. A desire of restraining the pernicious excess in spirituous liquors, and of increasing the publick revenue, induced him to adopt a measure which infringed personal rights, and did not in practice prove beneficial. He listened, however, to the publick murmurs, and restored the unlimited freedom of private stills, on condition of a very temporary and moderate tribute in grain; to which he obtained the people's free consent by commissioners in the several counties. The nobility, whose political weight (as being hereditary) was most lessened by the revolution, were irritated afresh in the diet of 1778, by the king's reviving the ancient division of their houses into classes; according to which every individual was to vote within his class, and the plurality of classes to constitute the vote of the house. During the diet of 1786, a decided opposition was formed. Of the four propositions offered by the king, that only of a fund for publick granaries was accepted: The states were so economical that they would not even relieve their fellow citizens who worked the copper mines with loans, as had formerly been the practice.

The war with Russia, which broke out soon after, ripened these seeds of discord. The campaign was no sooner opened in Finland, than a great part of the officers refused to serve, under pretence that Sweden had not been attacked, and entered into a negociation with the court of Russia. "The king, finding that he could not depend upon his troops, quitted Finland, and having traversed several of the northern and western provinces of Sweden, harangued the Dalecarlians on the same spot where Gustavus I. addressed them, when he had recourse to their valour to deliver his country from a foreign yoke. These brave mountaineers offered to raise, at their own expense, a body of troops, whom his majesty might dispose of as he thought proper. Every heart was touched by the eloquence of the Swedish monarch: and the people every where declared in his favour. Setting out for Gottenburg, he arrived there when the Danes were about to besiege it: but his presence revived the courage of the inhabitants, and the project of the enemy miscarried. In the mean while the troops who remained at Stockholm, had orders to march toward Gottenburg; and the defence of the capital, the castle and the royal family was entrusted to the care of the citizens." A truce, and a final peace, in the next spring was effected with Denmark by the mediation of the Prussian and British ministers.

The diet met on the 26th of January 1789. The three orders manifested a warm attachment to the king, but a great majority of the nobles behaved with insolent obstinacy. On the 17th of February, the four orders were convoked in the hall of the states, and the king delivered a discourse full of energy. He lamented that a tyrannick aristocracy, which he had crushed in 1772, should again threaten destruction to Sweden; drew a lively contrast between the fidelity of the inferior orders, who supported him with their lives and fortunes, and the treacherous ingratitude of those nobles, who, forgetful of their country's kindness, and his peculiar favours, basely endeavoured to humble the monarch by ruining the nation; he knew those who wished to see a Russian envoy dictating the terms of peace in Stockholm; but was determined rather to perish than sign one article offensive to Swedish honour; he vowed that those rash hands which attempted his father's crown, should never wrest from him that sceptre which he had inherited from Gustavus Adolphus, and which he would transmit, if not equally splendid, yet pure, to his successor on the Swedish throne; finally, he warned them of that punishment from God and their country, which a wicked perseverance would provoke. The nobles persisted in their opposition, and the other orders having, by a formal deputation, petitioned the king to take effectual measures for the publick safety, orders were given on the 20th to arrest fourteen of the principal nobles; among them count Fersen, who, before the revolution, had long been the chief of the Hats: They were confined in the palace of Frederickshof till the close of the diet next March, but well accomodated.

After this the act of union and safety was ratified by the king and the three orders; but the house of nobles refused their assent, pretending that it was a violation of the constitution, and of their privileges.

The war having now received the national sanction, was carried on with vigour. Most of the officers returned to their duty; patriotick aids were collected over the whole country, and respectable bodies of volunteers prepared for emergencies. The success did not, however, correspond with the sanguine hopes of the Swedes, from the following causes. The Russians, numerous, hardy, warlike and well disciplined, fought under skilful commanders: The Swedish stores of provision and ammunition were at first deficient by the neglect of those concerned: Great opportunities were lost by the defection of the officers, and by the precarious dependence on some afterwards. The principal advantage was, a recovery of military reputation, which had suffered in the former war of 1742. A very severe action happened in the month of July 1788, between the two grand fleets in the gulf of Finland, the Swedish commanded by the duke of Sudermania, and the Russian by admiral Greig. Both admirals were applauded by their sovereigns; great slaughter took place on both sides: each took one ship from the other; and the Russians had one sunk: night put an end to the battle. Of the engagements in 1789, the most remarkable was one in which the king defeated a large detachment of the Russian army. In 1790, the duke attacked the strong harbour of Revel, in which were 9 or 10 Russian men of war, but

lost two of his ships. He then joined the king, who had with the galley fleet gone up into the bay of Wiburg. The whole Russian fleet came to lock them in; the Swedes with great bravery forced their way back, but lost 6 or 7 ships of the line, two by catching fire from the ketches sent to burn the Russian fleet, and the others by stranding on the sand banks in that narrow pass. This critical misfortune could not be repaired without a stroke of decisive boldness. He, therefore, with his shore fleet attacked that of Russia under count Nassau: A dreadful battle ensued, and continued, with a short pause at midnight, for twenty-four hours. The Swedes took or destroyed about forty vessels, consisting of gallies, xebecks, brigantines and small frigates, carrying among them 600 cannon, and six or seven thousand prisoners. The king exposed himself during the whole action with the greatest intrepidity, going a constant round of the most dangerous scenes. This memorable victory was obtained on the first of August, in Svensksund, and procured an immediate peace.

In the beginning of 1792, a diet was held at Gefle, of which the principal object was to restore the national finances, much deranged by the war. The three orders were, as usual, complaisant; but a majority of the nobles displayed the old spirit.

After the diet, the king returned to Stockholm, and soon fell a victim to an atrocious conspiracy. Fifteen or twenty persons were convicted; most of them noblemen: the principal actors were baron Bielke, who poisoned himself; the counts Horn and Ribbing, the lieutenant colonel Liljehorn, and captain Ankarstrom, also nobles. This last was the assassin: he shot the king with a pistol charged with slugs and nails, at a masquerade, on the night of the sixteenth of March.

Gustavus bore this catastrophe with his usual fortitude; and under agonizing pains preserved that serenity and strength of mind necessary for making his last dispositions. He also took a solemn promise from his brother, to treat his murderers with all possible lenity, and not by any means to give up more than one to capital justice. He expressed exemplary sentiments of devotion; comforted his disconsolate friends; and, after the last valediction to the queen and prince, died on the 29th of the same month.

The talents and virtues of Gustavus are universally acknowledged. His political conduct can be fairly judged only by those who know the affairs of Sweden. It is certain that his death caused a general grief; that the common people regarded him as a martyr in vindication of their rights; that many distinguished noblemen were his confidential friends; and that several of that order, whose opposition was manly and spirited, would have defended him with their blood.

The mild and equal conduct of the regent (Charles, duke of Sudermania, the king's brother, born 1748) has preserved the country from the horrors of internal war, and hitherto he has avoided becoming a party in any coalition formed against the wild ambition of France. Whether Sweden will join the armed neutrality, which is said to be now forming among the northern powers of Europe, time will show.

Gustavus IV. the present king of Sweden, was born Nov. 1, 1778, and succeeded his father, Gustavus III. who was shot, as above related, 1792.

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	4,800*	between	22° 20′ & 186° 20′ E. lon. [*Busch.*]
Medium Bread.	1,200	between	44° 40′ & 72°, N. lat.

THIS immense empire stretches from the Baltick Sea and Sweden on the west, to Kamtskatka and the Pacifick Ocean on the east: and from the Frozen Ocean on the north, to about the 44th degree of lat. on the south; on which side it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caspian Seas, Great Tartary, Chinese Tartary, and other unknown regions in Asia.

The country now comprised under the name of The RUSSIAN EMPIRE is of an extent nearly equal to all the rest of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius subdued by Alexander, or even both put together.

Russia, according to Zimmermann, was, in 1787, divided into 42 governments, which are comprehended again under 19 general governments, viz.

A. EUROPEAN PART OF RUSSIA.

30 GOVERNMENTS.

	Towns.	
1. Government of St. Petersburg, divided into 7 Parts or Circles	Petersburg	170,000 inhab.
		191,000 (1784)
		126,700 (Coxe)
	Narva	3,580
	Kronstadt	5,000
2. Government of Wiburg, divided into 6 Circles	Wiburg	
	Fredericksham	
3. Government of Riga, properly of Livonia	Riga	27,938
	Dorpt	
	Pernau	
4. Government of Reval, properly of Estland	Reval	10,000
5. Government of Moskow, divided into	Moskow	277,000 (Coxe)
	12,550 houses, and 153,000 inhabitants	
	Kolomna	

* Tooke, in his view of the Russian Empire, says, that, without reckoning the islands, it reaches, in length above 9,200 miles, and in breadth 2400. The European part, according to Pinkerton, is 1600 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth.

6. Government of Wolodimer	14	Wolodimer	
7. —— of Pereslaw		Pereslau-Saleskoi	
8. Government of Kaluga, divided into 12 Circles		Kaluga	
9. —— of Tula	12	Tula	30,000 inhab.
10. Gov. of Jaraslaw	12	Jaraslaw	
11. —— of Kostroma, 15 divisions		Kostroma	
12. —— of Nowogorod, 15 Circles		Nowogorod	6,000
13. —— of Twer	13	Twer	10,000
14. —— of Wologda	19	Wologda Archangel	8,0000
15. —— of Nishnei Nowogorod	13	Nishnei Nowogorod	
16. —— of Woronesh	15	Woronesh	
17. —— of Tanbow	14	Tanbow	
18. —— of Kursk	15	Kursk	
19. —— of Orel	13	Orel	
20. —— of Charcow	15	Charcow	
21. —— of Kiew (Cosac Country, or the Ekraine) about 1 million of people	1	Kiew	
22. —— of Tishernigo	11	Tishernigo	
23. —— of Nowogrod Sewersk	11	Nowogrod Sewersk	
24. —— of Smolensk (White Russia)	13	Smolensk	4,000
25. —— of Pleskow	10	Pleskow	
26. —— of Polotzka	11	Polotzka	
27. —— of Mohilow	12	Mohilow	
28. —— of Ekatarinoslow (New Russia)	20	Pultawa Charson Asow	
29. —— of Taurida (or Crimea, taken from the Turks, 1783)	7	Caffa Perekov	4,000
30. —— of Wiætka	10	Wiætka	

B. ASIATICK RUSSIA.

12 Governments.

		Towns.	
1. Gov. of Caucasia (Kuban)		Taman	
2. —— of Casan, divided into 13 Circles		Casan	25,000
3. —— of Permia (Catarimb.) 16 Circles		Perm Ekatarinenberg	
4. —— of Pensa	7	Pensa	
5. —— of Sinbirsk	12	Sinbirsk Samara	
6. —— of Saratow	9	Saratow	

7. Gov. of Astrachan	Astrachan	70,000
8. —— of Orenburg	Orenburg Gurjew	
9. —— of Ufa	Ufa	
10. —— of Tobolsk, 3 Divisions	Tobolsk 2,000 houses Jenicisk	
11. —— of Irkutzk, 17 Circles	Irkutzk 1,113 Jakutzk 600 Kiechta Oihotz	
12. —— of Kolywan	5 Kolywan Tomsk 2,000	

C. TRIBUTARY ISLANDS IN THE GREAT SOUTH SEA, BETWEEN ASIA AND AMERICA.

1. The Aleutian Islands.
2. The Andrean Islands.
3. The Fox Islands.
4. The Kurilian Islands.

	Square Miles.	Population.	Popu. for every square Mile.
Whole Russia, A and B	4,890,000	24,000,000 30,000,000*	5
A	1,194,976	20,000,000	20
B	3,595,024	4,000,000 for the ancient limits	1
Livonia	16,000	525,300	32
Estronia	6,400	200,000	31
Crimea	24,368	200,000, according to some accounts only 60,000	8 or only 2
By the division of Poland, 1773 Russia acquired	31,000	1,800,000†	57

According to the former division into governments which is preserved in most of the maps, the European part of Russia contains only 1,008,000 square miles.

The superiority of the European part over the vast but uncultivated provinces of Asia is striking.

The provinces acquired by the division of Poland, are highly valuable to Russia, to which the acquisition of Crimea is by no means comparable in value.

This immense empire comprehends upwards of fifty different nations. They may be reduced to the following classes: 1. Sclavonian

* *Hermann*, in his Statistick table of Russia, which is the most recent and exact. [Reichard.]

† By a later division of Poland, (July 1793) Russia acquired 3,500,000 inhabitants.

nations, viz. Russians, Polanders, Cosaks. 2. Lettonian (in Livonia.) 3. Finnian, viz. Laplanders, Tshorkis, Estonians, Lieffs, Wotjaks, Tchermisses, Tshowashes, Permekian, Wogolian, Morduines, Samojedes, Ostiaks, Yuraks. 4. Tartarian, viz. Nogaitz, Tshulyms, Bashkirians, Kirgis, Yakutes, Bazabins, &c. Tartars. 5. Mongolian, viz. Kalmucks, Buræts, Teleuts, &c. 6. Tungusian, Koriakes, Kamtskadaly, Kurilian, &c. 7. Migrated Europeans from every part of Europe, chiefly Germans. 8. Armenians, Indians, Persians. It is supposed that the number of languages is nearly equal to the number of different nations.

Climate.] In the southern parts of Russia, or Muscovy, the longest day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas, in the most northern, the sun is seen in summer two months above the horizon. The reader from this will naturally conclude, that there is in Muscovy a vast diversity of climate, and that the extremes of heat and cold are felt in this vast empire.

The severity of the climate however, in Russia, properly so called, is very great. Dr. King, who resided eleven years in Russia, observes, that the cold in St. Petersburg, by Farenheit's scale, is, during the months of December, January and February, usually from 8 to 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below freezing point: Though commonly, in the course of the winter, it is for a week or ten days some degrees lower.

The only tree in Spitzbergen is the dwarf willow, which rises to the height of two inches, towering above the mosses, and a few other plants.

The houses of persons in tolerable circumstances are so well protected, both without doors and within, that they are seldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houses in Russia is by an oven constructed with several flues, and the country abounds with wood which is the common fuel. These ovens consume a much smaller quantity of wood than might be imagined, and yet they serve at the same time for the ordinary people to dress their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, and suffer it to burn only till the thickest black smoke is evaporated; they then shut down the chimney to retain all the rest of the heat in the chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat 24 hours, and is commonly so warm that they sit with very little covering, especially children, who are usually in their shirts. The windows in the huts of the poor are very small, that as little cold may be admitted as possible: In the houses of persons of condition, the windows are caulked up against winter, and commonly have double glass frames. In short, they can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactness, opening or shutting the flues to increase or diminish the heat. When the Russians go out, they are clothed so warmly, that they almost bid defiance to frost and snow; and it is observable, that the wind is seldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

One advantage which the Russians derive from the severity of their climate is the preserving provisions by the frost. Good housewives, as soon as the frost sets in for the winter, about the end of October,

kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of snow between them, and then take them out for use as occasion requires: by which means they save the nourishment of the animal for several months. Veal, frozen at Archangel, and brought to Petersburg, is esteemed the finest they have; nor can it be distinguished at the table from what is fresh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Petersburg are by this means supplied in winter with all manner of provisions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwise be possible; and it is not a little curious to see the vast stacks of whole hogs, sheep, fish, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for sale. The method of thawing frozen provisions in Russia, is, by immerging them in cold water: For when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it seems to occasion a violent fermentation, and almost a sudden putrefaction: But when produced by cold water, the ice seems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a transparent incrustation round it. If a cabbage which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as fresh as if just gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes so rancid and strong that it cannot be eaten. Vegetation in Russia is very rapid.

Products and Commerce of Russia.] In so vast a tract of country as the empire of Russia, spreading under many degrees of latitude, we may expect to find an infinite number of natural productions, though we must make some allowances for the great deserts of Siberia, and the many other parts of this immense empire not yet thoroughly investigated by natural historians. The species of plants peculiar to this part of the globe, which have been already discovered, amount to many thousands. The soil contains almost all minerals, tin, platina and some semi-metals excepted, which have not yet been found. Yet in the mines of all these large provinces, not half the number of miners is employed, nor even half as many mines have been explored, as in Germany or even in England. Animals of every species are here likewise in such abundance, that a great quantity of them remain undescribed. As to the useful productions of the animal kingdom, Russia can boast of the greatest variety of the finest furs, as it has plenty of sables, martins, ermine, black, white, blue and red foxes, white and common lynxes, bears, wolves, and several animals of the spotted cat kind. It abounds likewise in camels, horses, asses, and cattle both wild and tame; it has innumerable flocks of more than one species of hares and squirrels, wild and tame sheep, wild goats, different sorts of deer, rein-deer, elks, the musk animal, the musk beaver, different antelopes, &c. The following data may give the reader a general idea of their value to the country. In 1781 there were exported from the harbour of Petersburg alone, 428,877 skins of hares, 36,904 skins of grey squirrels, 1554 of bears, 2018 of ermine, 5639 of foxes, 300 of wild cats, besides those of wolves and the *sustick*, (a beautiful animal of the rat kind) exclusive of the exportation of the same articles from Archangel, Riga and the Caspian Sea. In one year there were exported from Archangel, 783,000 pud of tallow, (a pud is equal to 36lb.) 8602 pud of candles, and 102 pud of butter. In 1781, from Petersburg, 148,099 pud of red leather, 10,885 pud of leather for soles, 530,646 pud of candles, 50,000 pud of soap, 27,416 pud of ox bones,

990 calf skins. The sheep of some Russian provinces are very profitable to their owners; the most esteemed on account of their wool and skins are the sheep of the Calmucks and Kirgis Tartars. These nations sell the skins of the young, and even of the unborn lambs, which are the softest in the world, and feel like satin. The Kirgis and Bashkires carry on a great trade in horses and camels, the former of which are much valued; there are individuals among them who possess sometimes 2000 horses. The cattle of the Ukraine are reckoned the best in Europe. In the year 1768, wax was exported to the value of 72,000 rubles; yet the vast quantity of honey, produced by the wild bees of Astrachan, Casan and Orenburg, is not sufficient for the inland consumption of this article, which in Russia is very generally used instead of sugar. Birds are very plentiful in Russia; but the advantages to be derived from them do not seem to have been sufficiently attended to, as Russia continues to import feathers, goose-quills, and down. The fisheries of the Baltick and Caspian Seas, of the lakes Onega and Ladoga, are of great importance. The different sorts of sturgeon, caught in great plenty in these waters, viz. the common sturgeon, the beluga, the sterlid, &c. serve not only for food, but supply also the fish gum, of which there were exported 3000 pud from Petersburg, in the year 1781. From the spawn of these fishes caviar is made; one single beluga contains sometimes 120lb. of spawn. The caviar is prepared in different manners, and is mostly exported. The seals, wolrosses and cod, caught in the Russian seas, are likewise very important articles.

Of the productions of the vegetable kingdom, the most valuable to Russia are its immense forests of fir trees. Oaks and beeches do not commonly grow to a usual size beyond the 60th degree of north latitude. In 1768, the value of timber exported, amounted to 585,000 rubles, of pitch and tar to 82,000 rubles, pot-ash to 37,000 rubles, masts to 59,000 rubles. In 1760, an English merchant contracted with the Russian government for leave to export anuually, for the space of 30 years, 250,000 large pieces of timber, 10,000 masts, 10,000 smaller pieces of timber, 200,000 planks, 5000 fathom of birch wood, and 200,000 small beams. This branch of trade is carried on chiefly by the towns of Petersburg, Wiburg, Narva, Archangel and Kola. The plant kali, *Salsola Linnæi*, from which alkali is extracted, grows near Astrachan and Assow.

The European part of the Russian dominions and chiefly the province of Livonia, is distinguished for the quantity of corn of all sorts it produces. The value of the rye and wheat exported annually amounts to upwards of 754,000 rubles. Tobacco is cultivated in several parts of Russia. Hemp, flax and sail cloth, Russia exports to the amount of 600,000 rubles. In 1768, Russia received for hemp seed, exported, 93,000 rubles; for hemp oil, commonly called linseed oil, 255,000 rubles; for flax seed, 433,000 rubles. Archangel sent abroad, in 1777, 62,043cwt. of flax seed, 71,783 pud of hemp, 105,923 arschien (yards) of linen, and 3,210 ropes.

The mineral stores of this empire would be much more valuable if there were a greater population and more liberty: Yet the gold mines near Catharineburg produce annually no less than 240lb. of

gold dust. Among the richest mines are those of Kolivan, which yielded some years ago from 200 to 400 pud of silver, but of late from 400 to 800 pud, or about 30,000 pounds of silver; every 100lb. of silver containing 3lb. of gold. The silver mines at the Schlangenberg, and the copper, lead and iron mines, (especially those of the Altai, and of the several branches of the Ural) produce great riches. The mines in the neighbourhood of Nertschinsk, near the borders of China, yield annually 16,000 pounds of silver and some quicksilver. In 1781, there was exported from Petersburg 3,589,869 shippound of iron and 280,000 shippound of copper; lead, to the value of 96,000 rubles, and sugar of lead (saccharum Saturni) to the value of 6000 rubles. There are several manufactures of sulphur in the empire; one of them, established at Sernoi Gorodock, near the river Wolga, produces 1500 pud. Salt abounds in Russia, but as there is not a sufficient number of salt works, a considerable quantity of salt is still imported. Isinglass (mica membranacea, Cronstadt) is a famous mineral production of Russia; it is found in Siberia, especially in the neighbourhood of Irkutzk, in the Ural mountains, and in the island of Solowezkoi, in the government of Astmihen; the largest and most valuable plates are found in the province of Wologda; 3037 pud of it were exported from Petersburg, in 1779. There are, besides, many sorts of jasper, marble and granite; the latter being found in very large masses, is of great use in ornamental architecture.

The whole of the exports of Russia amounted, in 1783 to near 13 millions of rubles; the imports did not much exceed the sum of 12 millions. So much has commerce been encouraged of late, that, in the course of five years, the value of the exports increased at the rate of nearly a million each year. The imports consist chiefly of wine, spices, fruits, fine cloth, and other manufactured commodities, and articles of luxury. The English, and next to them the Dutch, have the most considerable share in the Russian trade. The value of the exports from Russia into Great-Britain amounted, in 1785, to 1,606,688*l.* the value of the imports from Great-Britain, &c. to 233,998*l.* sterling. (Custom-house Account, presented to the house of Commons, 1787.)

The commerce of the Black Sea, has considerably increased since the late war with the Turks. The value of the imports in the several harbours on the Black Sea, amounted, in 1785, to 806,330 piasters, the piaster computed at 40 paras each, nearly equal to 241,849*l.* sterling. The exports from the same harbours amount to 735,117 rubles.

It is apparently owing to the want of hands that there are at present no more than 484 manufactures in the whole empire. Some of them, however, are brought to a degree of perfection, which proves the skill and ingenuity of the nation: As the manufacture of muskets and other arms at Tula, which employs 6000 people, and supplies the Russian dominions.

Canals.] The canal of Vishnei Voloshok opens a communication from Astrakan to Petersburg. For this, it was necessary only to cut a canal from the Twertza to the Shlina which falls in the Baltick.

Four thousand vessels pass this in a year. The canal of Ladoga extends from the Volkof to the Neva, 67 miles and a half, and communicates with the former canal. By these two canals, intercourse is maintained between the north and south parts of the empire. Another canal leads from Moscow to the Don, opening a communication with the Euxine.

Mountains, Rivers and Face of the Country.] Russia is, in general, a flat, level country, except towards the north, where lie the Zimnopoias mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the Earth. On the western side of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains, and between the Black Sea and the Caspian, Mount Caucasus borders a range of vast plains extending to the sea of Oral. And here we may observe, that from Petersburg to Pekin, hardly a mountain is to be met with on the road through Independent Tartary; and from Petersburg to the north part of France, by the road of Dantzick, Hamburg and Amsterdam, we scarcely can perceive the smallest hill.

The most considerable rivers, are the *Wolga* or *Volga*, which rises from a number of lakes in the mountains of Valday, between Petersburg and Moscow, which running east and south, is the line, for a great distance, between Asia and Europe, and after traversing the greatest part of Muscovy, and winding a course of 3000 English miles, discharges itself into the Caspian Sea: It is not only reckoned the largest, but one of the most fertile rivers of Europe: It produces all kinds of fish; and fertilizes all the lands on each side, where grow the richest trees, fruits and vegetables: and it is remarkable, that, in all this long course, there is not a single cataract, and it is navigable almost to its source; but the nearer it approaches to its mouth, multiplies its quantity of isles, as it divides itself into a greater number of arms, than any known river in the world: And all these arms divide themselves into others still less, which join and meet again, so that the Wolga dicharges itself into the Caspian Sea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moscow preserves a communication, not only with all the southern parts of Russia, but even with Persia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caspian Sea. The principal branches are the Karna, which comes from the Uralian mountains east, and the Oka from the west. The *Don*, or *Tanais* divides the most eastern part of Russia from Asia; and, in its course towards the east, comes near the Wolga. This river discharges itself into the Palus Mæotis, or sea of Asoph, about 800 miles from its rise. The *Borysthenes*, or *Dnieper*, is among the largest rivers in Europe, rising 150 miles south from the source of the Wolga, and runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Cossacks, and that of the Nagaisch Tartars, and after a course of 1000 miles, falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Kinbourne, near Oczakow; it has thirteen cataracts within a small distance. To these may be added the two *Dwinas*, one of which empties itself at Riga into the Baltick; the other has its source near Ustiaga, and, dividing itself into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White Sea.

Population, Manners and Customs.] According to the foregoing table, Russia contains 24,000,000, accounts say 36,000,000 inhab-

itants. As his imperial majesty of all the Russias possesses many of the countries from whence the prodigious swarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire issued, there is the strongest reason to believe that his dominions must have been better peopled formerly than they are at present; thirty millions are but a thin population for the immense tract of country he possesses. As the like decrease of inhabitants is observable in many other parts of the globe, we are to look for the reason in natural causes, which we cannot discuss here.

The Russians, properly so called, are in general a personable people, hardy, vigorous and patient of labour, especially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from those of the English or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye sight seems to be defective, occasioned, probably, by the snow, which for a great part of the year is present to their eyes. Their officers and soldiers always possessed a large share of passive valour; but, in the late war with the king of Prussia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe; and, in the late war with the Turks, they greatly distinguished themselves. They are implicitly submissive to discipline, let it be ever so severe; they endure extreme hardships with great patience; and can content themselves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Russians were in general barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenness; no less than 4000 brandy shops have been reckoned in Moscow. Not only the common people but many of the boyards, or nobles, lived in a continual state of idleness and intoxication; and the most complete objects of misery and barbarity presented themselves upon the streets, while the court of Moscow was by far the most splendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dressed after the most superb Asiatick manner; and their magnificence exceeded every idea that can be conceived from modern examples. The earl of Carlisle, in the account of his embassy, says, that he could see nothing but gold and precious stones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of those, and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter saw the bulk of his subjects, at his accession to the throne, little better than beasts of burden to support the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aside their long robes, and dress in the European manner; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The Russians, before his days, had hardly a ship upon their coasts. They had no conveniencies for travelling, no pavements in their streets, no places of publick diversion; and they entertained a sovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At present, a French or English gentleman may live as comfortably and sociably in Russia, as in most other parts of Europe. Their polite assemblies, since the accession of the late empress, have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient usages remain. It is, however, said that they are yet addicted to intemperance.

The Russians were formerly noted for so strong an attachment to their native soil, that they seldom visited foreign parts. The Russian

nobility, however, beside those who are in a publick character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her imperial majesty even interested herself in the education of young men of quality in the knowledge of the world and foreign services.

It is said that the Russian ladies were formerly as submissive to their husbands in their families, as the latter are to their superiors in the field; and that they thought themselves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the discipline of a whip, manufactured by themselves, which they presented to their husbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themselves, and formerly consisted of some very whimsical rites, many of which are now disused. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties, perhaps, have never seen each other, the bride is examined stark naked by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if possible, any defects they find in her person. On her wedding day she is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the priest has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or sexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wishing that she may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarse, and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off, even among the lowest ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their husbands, which extended even to scourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded against by the laws of the country, or by particular stipulations in the marriage contract.

Funerals.] The Russians entertain many fantastick notions with regard to the state of departed souls. After the dead body is dressed, a priest is hired to pray for his soul, to purify it with incense, and to sprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better sort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many gesticulations of sorrow, the priest produces a ticket, signed by the bishop and another clergyman, as the deceased's passport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpse, the company returns to the deceased's house, where they drown their sorrow in intoxication; which lasts among the better sort, with a few intervals, for forty days. During that time, a priest every day says prayers over the grave of the deceased; for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be assisted by prayer, in his long journey, to the place of his destination after this life.

Punishments.] The Russians are remarkable for the severity, barbarism and variety of their punishments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful insensibility. Peter the Great used to suspend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themselves to death, hundreds, nay, thousands at a time. The single and double knout were lately inflicted upon ladies* as well as men of

* A particular account of the manner in which this punishment was inflicted upon a Russian lady, is given in Mons. L'Abbè Chappe D'Auteroche's journey into Siberia. Madame Lapouchin was one of the finest women belonging to the court of the empress Elizabeth, and was intimately connected with a foreign am-

quality. Both of them are excruciating ; but in the double knout, the hands are bound behind the prisoners back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the dislocation of both his shoulders ; and then his back is in a manner scarified by the executioner, with a hard thong, cut from a wild ass's skin. This punishment has been so often fatal, that a surgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it should cease. It is not always the number of the strokes, but the method of applying them, which occasions the death of the criminal ; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by striking him upon the ribs ; though persons are sometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred strokes, moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out the tongue are likewise practised in Russia ; and even the late empress Elizabeth, though she prohibited capital punishments, was forced to give way to the supposed necessity of those tortures.

According to the strict letter of the law, there are no capital punishments in Russia, except in the case of high treason : But when this matter is thoroughly investigated, there is much less humanity in it than has been supposed. For there are many felons who die under the knout, and others die of fatigue in their journies to Siberia, and from the hardships they suffer in the mines ; so that there is

bassador then engaged in a conspiracy : This lady, therefore, being suspected to be concerned in it, was condemned by the empress Elizabeth, to undergo the punishment of the knout. She appeared at the place of execution in a genteel undress, which contributed still to heighten her beauty. The sweetness of her countenance, and her vivacity, were such as might indicate indiscretion, but not even the shadow of guilt ; although I have been assured by every person of whom I have made inquiry, that she was really guilty. Young, lovely, admired, and sought for at the court, of which she was the life and spirit, instead of the number of admirers her beauty usually drew after her, she then saw herself surrounded only by executioners. She looked on them with astonishment, seeming to doubt whether such preparations were intended for her. One of the executioners then pulled off a kind of cloak which covered her bosom ; her modesty taking the alarm, made her start back a few steps, she also turned pale, and burst into tears. Her clothes were soon after stripped off, and in a few moments she was quite naked to the waist, exposed to the eager looks of a vast concourse of people profoundly silent. One of the executioners then seized her by both hands, and turning half round, threw her on his back, bending forwards, so as to raise her a few inches from the ground : the other executioner then laid hold of her delicate limbs, with his rough hands hardened at the plough, and, without any remorse, adjusted her on the back of his companion, in the properest posture for receiving the punishment. Sometimes he laid his large hand brutally upon her head, in order to make her keep it down ; sometimes like a butcher going to slay a lamb, he seemed to soothe her, as soon as he had fixed her in the most favourable attitude. This executioner then took a kind of whip, called knout, made of a long strap of leather prepared for this purpose; he then retreated a few steps measuring the requisite distance with a steady eye: and, leaping backwards, gave a stroke with the end of the whip so as to carry away a slip of skin from the neck to the bottom of the back ; then striking his feet against the ground, he took his aim for applying a second blow parallel to the former ; so that in a few moments all the skin of her back was cut away in small slips, most of which remained hanging to the shift. Her tongue was cut out immediately after, and she was directly banished into Siberia. In 1762 she was recalled from banishment by Peter III.

reason to believe, that not fewer criminals suffer death in Russia than in those countries wherein capital punishments are authorised by the laws.

Felons after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and foreheads marked, are sometimes sentenced for life to the publick works at Cronstadt, Vishnei, Voloshok, and other places; but the common practice is to send them to Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nershink. There are upon an average from 1600 to 2000 convicts at these mines. The greatest part are confined in barracks, excepting those who are married: The latter are permitted to build huts, near the mines, for themselves and families.

Travelling.] Among the many conveniences introduced of late into Russia, that of travelling is most worthy of remark. The Russians perform the longest and most uncomfortable journies, with the greatest facility and dispatch, and very trifling expense. Like their Scandinavian and Lapland neighbours, they travel in sledges made of the bark of the linden tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the snow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Russia, horses draw their sledges; and the sledge-way towards February, becomes so well beaten, that they erect a kind of coach upon the sledges, in which they may lie at full length, and so sleep and travel night and day, wrapped up in good furs; thus they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, such as that between Petersburg and Moscow, in three days and three nights. The sovereigns of Russia in their journies, are drawn in a house which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniences for four people, by 24 post horses; and the house itself is fixed on a sledge.

Different Nations subject to Russia.] As the present subjects of the Russian empire, in its most extensive sense, are the descendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, so we find among them a vast variety of character and manners; and the great reformations introduced of late years as well as the discoveries made, render some accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Russian dominions, now live in fixed houses and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other subjects. Till lately, they were not admitted into the Russian armies; but they now make excellent soldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both sides of the Wolga are inhabited by the Tscheremisses and Morduars; a peaceable industrious people. The Baskirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kasan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kalmucks occupy the rest of the tract to Astrachan and the frontiers of the Usbecks; and, in consideration of certain presents they receive from his imperial majesty, they serve in his armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The *Cossacks*, who lately made a figure in the military history of Europe, were originally Polish peasants, and served in the Ukraine as the militia against the Tartars. Being oppressed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them removed to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there established a colony. They were soon af-

ter joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Asoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in ashes. They next put themselves under the protection of the Russians, built Circaska, on an island in the Don; and their possessions, which consisted of thirty-nine towns on both sides that river, reached from Ribna to Asoph. There they lived in a fruitful country, which they took care to cultivate; and they were so wedded to their original customs, that they were little better than nominal subjects to the czars, till the time of Peter the Great. They professed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and they occasionally served against the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The internal government of the Cossacks approaches very near to the idea we form of that of the ancient Germans, as described by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nation choose a chief, whom they call hauptman, and he resides at Circaska; but the choice is confirmed by the czar; and the hauptman holds his authority during life. He acts as superior over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a separate commonwealth, governed by its own hetman, who is chosen annually. They serve in war, in consideration of their enjoying their laws and liberties. They indeed have several times rebelled, for which they suffered severely under Peter the Great. But the Russian yoke was so much easier than that of the Poles, that, in 1654, the Cossacks of the Ukraine put themselves likewise under the protection of Russia. They complained, however, that their liberties had been invaded; and in the war between Charles XII. and Peter, their hetman Mazeppa joined the former; but he found himself unable to fulfil the magnificent promises he had made to Charles. He brought over, however, some of the Zaparovian Cossacks, who were settled about the falls of the river Nieper, but most of them were cut in pieces.

The mien and character of the Tartars of Kasan, and of those derived from them, are very uniform, and may serve for the characteristick marks of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally straight and well made, have small faces, with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of a very moderate capacity. They are sober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarian women are of a wholesome complexion rather than handsome, and of a good constitution. From their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, modesty and submission. The Tartars of Kasan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to sobriety, and to a strict observance of the manners of their ancestors. They are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabick tongue and the principles of their religion. Even the smallest village has its chapel, school, priest, and schoolmaster; though some of these priests and schoolmasters are not much skilled in the Arabick language. The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kasan, Tobolsk and Astrachan, which are under the direction of the Gagouns, or high priests. It is

not uncommon to find small collections of historical anecdotes in manuscript, in the huts of the boors; and their merchants, besides what these little libraries contain, are pretty extensively acquainted with the history of their own people, and that of the circumjacent states, with the antiquities of each. Such as choose to make progress in theology, enter themselves into the schools of Bougharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kasan, Orenburg and other governments, carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter: Coin is very rarely seen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterprising; but as they extend their connections by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of business, which their parsimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kasan they make a trade of preparing, what is called in England, Morocco leather. The villages of these people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Most of them also contain tanners, shoemakers, tailors, dyers, smiths and carpenters. The laborious females spin, and make cloth from the fleece of their flocks, and thread from hemp of their own cultivation.

The Tartars of Kasan, as well as most of the Mahometan Tartars, are very polite, both among one another and towards strangers. Old men who have maintained good characters, are held in great veneration among them: And a grey beard is considered as naturally entitling a man to respect. They are fond of asking advice of their old men, who have always preference and precedence, and are the arbitrators in all disputes.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villages of Astrachan are similar to those of the Tartars of Kasan. In the city of Astrachan they have a large magazine for goods, built of bricks, and several shops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Persians, Indians and Boughariens: And their manufactories of Morocco leather, cotton, camelots and silks, are in a very thriving state.

The *Finns* are of Asiatick origin, and have a close resemblance to the Laplanders, only they are more civilized, and better informed. They live in towns and villages, have schools and academies, and make some progress in the arts and sciences. They profess the Lutheran faith, and use the Christian era in their chronology. They carry on commerce, and exercise most of the common trades. The boors are chiefly employed in agriculture, hunting and fishing. They are great eaters, making five meals a day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. They enjoy a considerable degree of freedom, as the Russian government has continued to them the enjoyment of the privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden.

The *Wotjaks*, or *Votiacks*, who are a Finnish race, chiefly inhabit the province of Viaitk, in the government of Kasan. This nation was one of those who were formerly under the protection of the Tartars; but, since it has been subjected to Russia, it has preferred the quiet and security which agriculture affords, to the ambulatory life of herdsmen and shepherds, and fixed habitations, to their ancient tents.

The Wotjaks are of a middle stature, and generally red haired; they are honest, peaceable and hospitable; but superstitious, and very credulous. They are assiduous in rural economy, neglecting neither the culture of bees, nor the chase; in the latter they use indifferently the bow or fire arms. In their leisure hours many of them employ themselves in making all sorts of turnery, such as cups, spoons and shuttles; and others varnish all kinds of cups and bowls. The women are employed in sewing, in making linen, coarse cloths, and ornaments of embroidery. Some of them are christians, but a great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even these believe the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

The *Ostiaks*, who are likewise a Finnish race, are one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in subjection to Russia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their descendants are still reputed noble. These people divide themselves into different stocks or tribes, and choose their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. These maintain peace and good order, and superintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the use of letters, and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon as far as ten, but no farther, as is the case with other Finnish nations. They are most of them idolaters; and one of their opinions is, that bears enjoy, after death, a happiness at least equal to that which they expect for themselves. Whenever they kill one of these animals, they sing songs over him, in which they ask his pardon for the injury they have done him. They also hang up his skin, to which they show many civilities, and pay many fine compliments, to induce him not to take vengeance on them in the world of spirits. Indeed, it appears that bears are in great estimation among all the Pagan nations of the north and north-east.

The *Wogolians* are rather below the middle stature, have generally black hair, and a scanty beard. They are of a gay disposition, honest, laborious and acute; but slovenly and fickle, and inclined to be extremely passionate. Their women are well made, robust, civil and laborious. They are unacquainted with the use of letters, as well as some of their kindred nations: They do not reckon their time by years, though they mark their months, and name them after the various revolutions of nature which they observe in their forests. They distinguish themselves into tribes or races: And a Wougoul village is commonly composed only of one family, whose chief or elder performs the functions of staroste, or magistrate of the village. Their principal occupation is the chase, in which they discover much eagerness and address; using indiscriminately fire arms, the bow and the spear. They are also skilful in contriving traps, snares and gins, and all the lures of game.

The *Tschouwasches* dwell along the two sides of the Wolga, in the governments of Nischnei-Nowogrod, Kasan and Orenburg. They never live in towns, but assemble in small villages, and choose the forests for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpose screw-barrel muskets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that, on the wedding night, the bride is obliged to pull off her husband's boots. A late

writer says, "Among the Tschouwasches the husband is master of the house; he orders every thing himself; and it is the duty of the wife to obey without reply: A custom calculated to prevent domestick broils. Accordingly, quarrels are very uncommon in the families of the Tschouwasches."

The *Kirguisians* have a frank and prepossessing air, similar to that which characterizes the Tartars of Kasan. They have a sharp, but not a fierce look, and smaller eyes than those Tartars. They have good natural sense, and are affable, and high spirited; but fond of their ease, and voluptuous. They dwell always in portable huts, wandering about their deserts in search of pasturage for their flocks and herds, which constitute their principal occupation. As their courses are regulated by necessity, in summer they traverse the northern deserts, and in winter the southern parts. It is only when they have nothing else to do that they follow hunting and fishing, and agriculture is absolutely unknown to them. Their troops of cattle consist of horses, camels, cows, goats and sheep, which supply them both with food and raiment. Camels are of great service to them throughout their whole economy, carrying their huts and furniture at every change of station, which they do to the weight of nine hundred pounds. The Kirguisians dress in the eastern manner, but their clothes are for the most part better than those worn by the other Tartars. The decoration of their horses employs them almost as much as that of their persons; they having generally elegant saddles, handsome housings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters; and they also smoke tobacco to excess. Men, women and children, all smoke and take snuff: They keep the latter in little horns fastened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the same manner as the rest of the people, and are distinguished only by the numerous train that accompanies them in their cavalcades, and the quantity of huts which surround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children and slaves.

The *Tungusians* form one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. They are of a middle stature, well made, and of a good mien. Their sight and hearing are of a degree of acuteness and delicacy that is almost incredible; but their organs of smelling and feeling are considerably more blunt than ours. They are acquainted with almost every tree and stone within the circuit of their usual perambulations; and they can even describe a course of some hundred miles by the configuration of the trees and stones they meet with, and can enable others to take the same route by such descriptions. They also discover the tracks of the game by the compression of the grass or moss. They learn foreign languages with ease, are alert on horseback, good hunters, and dexterous at the bow.

The *Kalmucks* are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the most part raw-boned and stout. Their visage is so flat that the skull of a Kalmuck may easily be known from others. They have thick lips, a small nose, and a short chin, their complexion a reddish and yellowish brown. The women are of the same shape and make with the men, and the skin of their face a wholesome white and red; they are lively, agreeable and industrious. The standing character of

this tribe is rough, but less dissolute and base than they are commonly supposed to be. They are much attached to their chiefs or masters, but their active spirit, and their improvidence and carelessness, make them thievish and dirty. In their robberies, they use more stratagem than violence; and, as they believe in the nocturnal wandering of dead men's spirits, they are seldom accompanied with murder. They are superstitious about good and bad days, and have written laws which are founded on reason, custom, and the will of the prince. Their code is very favourable to females, and never looks upon a woman as the author of any crime. A rape and adultery is punished with a mulct of nine head of cattle. Their speech is a mongrel dialect, with many Tartarian words, but their religious books are in the Tangut or Tibetan. The sole profession among them is the breeding of cattle; they pursue the chase as an amusement; and their dwelling is in tents, or yourts of felt, which they call *gar*. Their clothing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chinese. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their nostrils. Both sexes are great smokers. During the summer they reside in the north, and in the winter in the southern deserts. They sleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themselves with the same.

Some attempts have lately been made to introduce the gospel among the Kalmucks, and the surrounding heathen tribes, and the town of Sarepta, on the Wolga, near Czarina, was built chiefly for this purpose. From the last accounts, no great effects had been produced, except among some German emigrants.

The *Kamtschadales* have a lively imagination, a strong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fishing. The chase furnishes them with sables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert in fishing, and are well acquainted with the proper seasons for it. Their nets are made of the stamina of nettles. When they are not engaged in hunting and fishing, they sometimes employ themselves in building huts, forming different wooden utensils, cutting wood for fuel and building, and making bows and arrows: But much of their time is passed in absolute idleness; for they are generally extremely indolent. Poverty gives them no concern; and nothing but the calls of hunger can drive them to the chase. They live in villages, consisting of a few small houses, and situated in general near some river. When a village becomes too populous, they separate and form a new one. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domestick animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in small carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtschadalian equipage, dogs, harness and all, costs in that country 4l. 10s. or nearly twenty rubles. The Kamtschadales believe the immortality of the soul, even before they were prevailed upon to embrace the christian religion. They are very superstitious; and extremely singular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the *Siberians* were formerly so barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater punishment upon his capital enemies the Swedes, than by banishing them to Siberia.

The effect was, that the Swedish officers and soldiers introduced European usages and manufactures into the country, by which they acquired a comfortable living. In this wild and forlorn region, that was so long unknown to Europe, some new mines have lately been discovered, which, upon their first opening, have yielded 45,000 pounds of fine silver, and which is said to have been obtained with little difficulty or expense. But Kamtschatka is now considered as the most horrid place of exile in the vast empire of Russia, and here some of the greatest criminals are sent.

The introduction of a new colony into the southern part of *Siberia*, bordering on China, was to take place in the year 1800, and to consist of 10,000 souls. The climate is said to be temperate and some of the lands good. "Not only (says the emperor) may agriculture be undertaken with advantage, but good pasturage provided, and manufactures of cloth and leather established, which being principal articles of commerce with *China*, may increase the trade with that country." The colonists are to be composed of soldiers on parole and under military control, and of persons condemned to banishment without any other kind of punishment, and who are not to obtain the privileges of colonists, until they have been in the colony for ten years, and have obtained a certificate of their industry, and their attention to agriculture. It shall be permitted to all who hold lands to provide slaves who may become colonists, provided they be above forty years of age, and that husbands be not separated from their wives. They shall be considered as recruits furnished to the army.

It is enjoined upon the government of *Lakulsh* to explore the country, and to provide proper places for settlement, and to assign to each of the colonists 30 defatens, a Russian measure of land, which contains 80 by 30, or 60 by 40 segins, 500 of which make a werst, or Russian mile, equal to $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile English. In this manner they are not only provided with land for culture, but for pastures. The cantons inhabited by the wandering tribes are never to be assigned to these colonists. The colonists are to be so distributed, that each canton may not contain more than 100 houses. The banished persons may be seated among or in the rear of the proper colonists. The government is to build the houses for the first 2000, and to furnish them with grain, working tools, and utensils for 18 months. The proprietors of the soil are to grant to the servants they carry with them, certain emoluments every year; and after this time, the 2000 colonists are to erect houses for such other individuals as may join them. The colony shall have inspectors, who are faithfully attentive, and acquainted with agriculture, and each colonist shall be exempted from all taxes for ten years, subject only to an annual acknowledgment, and to a supply of grain for the support of the government of the colony, and to assist new settlers.*

Religion.] The religion established in the Russian empire is the Greek. The most essential point in which their profession of faith differs from that of the Latin church, is the doctrine, that the Holy

* The above account rests on the authority of a late periodical paper, published by Prof. Olivarius, at *Kiel*.

Ghost proceeds from the Father only. The Greek church keeps Lent and other days of fast, which are very numerous, with the utmost strictness; its liturgy in Russia continues to be read in the old Sclavonian language; and its form of worship is at least as much overloaded with rites as the Roman catholick. Saints are held in veneration; painted images of them, but no statues, are suffered in the churches. There is a sect of dissenters, who call themselves Christians of the old faith, but who are called apostates by the orthodox church; the differences between them relate chiefly to ceremonies. The church has been governed since the time of Peter the Great, by a national council, called the Holy Synod, composed of a president, two vice-presidents, and nine other members. The Russian clergy consists of three metropolitans, viz. those of Kiew, Tobolsk, and the new appointed metropolitan of Georgia; of 28 bishops, independent of the metropolitans, and subject only to the authority of the Synod, who preside over dioceses called Eparchies, and of protopopes, popes and deacons. Marriage is forbidden to the archbishops and bishops, but is allowed to the inferior clergy. There are 479 convents for men, and 74 for women, containing about 70,000 persons: The convents of monks are governed by presidents, called Archimandrites; those of nuns by women, called Igumenias. Above 900,000 peasants belong to the estates in possession of the clergy.

Besides the Greek religion, all other religious professions are tolerated, and enjoy the free exercise of their worship. Livonia and some other provinces, which formerly belonged to Sweden, are of the Lutheran religion. The Roman catholicks in the Polish provinces, in which the order of Jesuits is still tolerated, are under the government of the catholick archbishop of Mohilow. The Jews are tolerated only in or near the Polish provinces. The Armenians have a bishop of their own, residing at Astrachan. In the province of Saratow there are several flourishing settlements of the Moravian brethren. Of the Asiatick nations belonging to this vast empire, some are Mahometans, others worship the Delai Lama of Tibet, or the great Kutuchtu of the Calmucks, and others, as the Kamtschadales and Kurilians, have a form of Pagan superstition peculiar to themselves.

Language.] The common language of Russia is a mixture of the Polish and Sclavonian; their priests, however, and the most learned of the clergy, make use of what is called modern Greek; and, it is said, those who know that language in its purity, are at no loss for understanding it in its corrupted state. The Russians have thirty-six letters, the forms of which have a strong resemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

Learning, &c.] Sciences and arts, introduced by Peter the Great, were highly encouraged by the late empress. There are in Russia three universities, at Petersburg, Moscow and Kiew; the latter of which is merely a seminary for the clergy. The imperial academy of sciences at Petersburg ranks among the first literary institutions in Europe. Besides this, there is an academy of arts, and an academy of the Russian language. The late empress founded a number of schools for the education of the lower classes of her subjects, throughout the

best inhabited parts of the empire ; an institution of the most beneficial tendency, which entitles her, as it respects this subject, more than any of her predecessors, to the gratitude of the Russian nation.

Government.] The emperor, or autocrator of Russia, is absolute. He must be of the Greek church by the ancient custom of the empire. The only written fundamental law existing is that of Peter I. by by which the right of succession to the throne depends entirely on the choice of the reigning monarch. Some writers, however, consider the indivisibility of the empire as a second fundamental law of the monarchy. The nobility and gentry have no rights and privileges to protect them against the arbitrary will of the sovereign, who has unlimited power over their lives and property, as well as over all the rest of his Russian subjects. Yet some of the conquered provinces, as Livonia and Estonia, enjoy, by the peace of Nystadt, some valuable privileges. The Cossacks and some other Asiatick nations are likewise in a state of less servile subjection.

The management of publick affairs is entrusted to several departments. At the head of all those concerned in the regulation of internal affairs (the synod or ecclesiastical convocation excepted) is the senate, under the presidency of a chancellor and vice-chancellor. The sovereign himself nominates the members of this supreme court, which is divided into six chambers, four of which are at Petersburg and two at Moscow. The provinces are ruled by governours appointed by the sovereign ; each government, containing on an average 400,000 subjects, has two courts of justice, one of which is appropriated to civil and the other to criminal causes. Under the control of the senate are the following departments : The war department ; the board of admiralty ; the supreme court of appeals at Moscow, of which the court of judicature at Petersburg is a branch ; The latter has the control of the civil magistrates in the cities, and of the court of relief, established for the benefit of those who have not the means of suing for redress in the other courts. From all courts of justice there lies an appeal to the senate. The other departments are, the board of the treasury ; the board of commerce ; the board of the mines, including the inspection of the mint ; the board of manufactures ; the court of exchequer (or chamber of finances) ; the board of revision of all publick accounts ; the salt revenue office ; the post-office ; the medical court ; the department of police, and the chamber of seizures and forfeitures.

Finances.] The publick revenue, in 1765, amounted to only 20 millions. The present revenue amounts to 40 millions of rubles.* This is very large, considering the low price of all the necessaries of life, which are at least four times cheaper than in England : The revenue commonly exceeds the expense of the government.

This sum is raised, 1. From a capitation tax, which at present has been extended to the provinces of Livonia, Estonia and Finland, contrary to the privileges granted to them by Peter the Great. The produce of this tax, in 1768, was seven millions of rubles, but it is since greatly increased. 2. From the customs, amounting to upwards

* Reichard.—Mr. Coxe reckons it at 41,830,910 rubles.

of three millions of rubles, and increasing with the extension of commerce. 3. From the monopoly invested in the crown of vending all sorts of spirituous liquors, which yields likewise upwards of three millions of rubles. 4. From the salt works, which produce one million and a half. 5. From taxes on lands, on sales of gentlemen's estates, fisheries, and licenses of publick houses. 6. From the profits of the mint. 7. From the mines.

The circulating money of the empire, in 1789, amounted to 130 millions of rubles, exclusive of 100 millions of bank bills. [*Hermann.*]

The publick debts are computed to amount to about 40 millions of rubles.

Army.] The army is generally calculated to amount to from 400 to 450,000 men; according to Busching they amounted, in 1772, to above 600,000.

Regular and Irregular, 1783.

	Men.
Regular cavalry	56,000
Irregular cavalry	48,000
Regiments of Infantry	160,000
Garrisons	87,000
Militia cavalry	26,000
Artillery of the camp	8,500
——— of the garrisons	8,500
Train	3,800
	397,800

The army in 1784 *amounted to* 368,901, *viz.*

Guards	7,241
Cavalry	59,662
Infantry	149,886
Artillery	29,562
Garrisons	87,000
Cossacks, &c.	36,000
Total	368,901

Navy.] Sixty-three armed ships, of which 24 are of the line, 20,000 sailors. In 1785 there were 48 ships of the line at Cronstadt, and 12 ships of the line in the Black Sea. By other and later accounts the strength of the Russian navy is much less considerable.

The chief harbours are, 1. Cronstadt, not far from Petersburg, on the gulf of Finland, where there is a fine dock yard. 2. Revel, in the province of Livonia, on the Baltick Sea. 3. Archangel, on the White Sea. 4. Cherson, on the Black Sea, in the province of Ekatarinoslow. The admiralty consists of one high admiral, three admirals, three vice-admirals, and four countre-admirals.

The whole army was, in the year 1784, divided into nine different divisions and three corps, the Caucasian, that of Orenburg and of Siberia. All the war affairs are under the war department of Peters-

burg, where there is also founded an academy for cadets and for artillery. Tulo, the capital of the province of the same name, is famous for its great manufacture of muskets. The expenses of the whole army amount only to about 2,000,000 of rubles.

Cities, Towns, Palaces and other Buildings.] Petersburg naturally takes the lead in this division. By an enumeration made in 1789, by order of the police of the city, its inhabitants amounted to 217,948. [*Reichard.*] 170,000. [*Pinkerton.*] It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga, already mentioned, in N. latiude 59° 57′, and E. longitude 31° ; but the reader may have a better idea of its situation, by being informed that it stands on both sides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulf. In the year 1703, this city consisted of a few small fishing huts, on a spot so marshy, that the ground was formed into nine islands ; by which, according to Voltaire, its principal quarters are still divided. Without entering into too minute a description of this city, it is sufficient to say, that it extends about six miles every way, and contains every structure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war and commerce, that are to be found in the most celebrated cities in Europe. There is but one bridge over the Neva, which joins the dock yard to Bazil's island. It is constructed with flat bottomed boats, which in the spring are laid across the river, and removed in autumn before the frost begins. There is a convent which deserves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies were educated at the late empress's expense ; 200 of them of superior rank, and the others, daughters of citizens and tradesman, who after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements suitable to their conditions of life, and those of the lower class are presented with a sum of money, as a dowry if they marry, or to procure to themselves a proper livelihood. Near to this convent is a foundling hospital, assistant to that noble one established at Moscow, and where the mother may come to be delivered privately, and then after the utmost attention to her, she leaves the child to the state, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

As Petersburg is the emporium of Russia, the number of foreign ships trading to it in the summer time is surprising. In winter 3000 one-horse sledges are employed for passengers in the streets. This city is ornamented with thirty-five great churches ; for in it almost every sect of the christian religion is tolerated. It also contains five palaces, some of which are superb, particularly that which is called the New Summer Palace, near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. This magnificent city is defended on that side next the sea by the fortress of Cronstadt ; which, considering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the gulf of Finland, is sufficient to guard it on that side from the attempts of any enemy. Petersburg is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conquests from the Swedes. All the neighbourhood of this city is covered with country houses and gardens.

The city of Moscow, the capital of this great empire, stands on a pleasant plain, in N. lat. 55° 40′, E. long. 38°, 1414 miles N. E. of

London. The river Moskwa running through it in a winding course, and several eminences, interspersed with gardens, groves and lawns, form most delightful prospects. It seems rather to be a cultivated country than a city. The ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not attested by the most unquestionable authors ; but we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated state of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a great lustre in the eyes of a traveller. Buschin speaks of it as the largest city in Europe ; but that can be only meant as to the ground it stands on, computed to be 16 miles in circumference. It is generally agreed that Moscow contains 1600 churches, among which are 11 cathedrals, and 271 parish churches. Around the exchange, according to Busching, are about 6000 fine shops, which display a vast parade of commerce, especially to and from China. No city displays a greater contrast than Moscow, of magnificence and meanness in building. The houses of the inhabitants in general are miserable timber booths ; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other publick edifices, are spacious and lofty. The grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the most superb structures in the world : It stands in the Kremelin, one of the interior circles of the city, and contains the old imperial palace, pleasure house and stables, a victualling house, the palace, which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four parish churches, the arsenal, with the publick colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremelin have beautiful spires, most of them gilt, or covered with silver : The architecture is in the Gothick taste ; but the insides of the churches are richly ornamented ; and the pictures of the saints are decorated with gold, silver and precious stones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper, double gilt, and contains a silver branch with forty-eight lights, said to weigh 2800 pounds. A volume would scarcely suffice to recount the other particulars of the magnificence of this city. Its sumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, and chancery, are noble structures. The publick is not unacquainted with the barbarous anecdote, that the czar John Basilides ordered the architect of the church of Jerusalem to be deprived of his eye sight, that he might never contrive its equal. The story is improbable, and might take its rise from the arbitrary disposition of that great prince. I shall have occasion hereafter to mention the great bell of Moscow. The inhabitants are so distractedly fond of bells, that they are always tinkling in every quarter. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the Virgin Mary, in the Kremelin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what is seen at the famous Holy House of Loretto in Italy. Voltaire says, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moscow at the time he was building Petersburg ; for he caused it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

The Foundling Hospital at Moscow is an excellent institution, and appears to be under very judicious regulations. It was founded by the late empress, and is supported by voluntary contributions,

legacies, and other charitable endowments. It is an immense pile of building, of a quadrangular shape, and contains 3000 foundlings: When the establishment is completed, it is intended to contain 8000. They are taken great care of; and at the age of fourteen, they have the liberty to choose any particular branch of trade; and for this purpose there are different species of manufactures established in the hospital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeship, or about the age of twenty, they are allowed the liberty of setting up for themselves: A sum of money is bestowed upon each foundling for that purpose, and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Russian empire. This is a very considerable privilege in Russia, where the peasants are slaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permission of their masters.

When lord Carlisle was the English ambassador at Moscow, in the reign of Charles II. it was 12 miles in compass, and the number of houses was computed at 40,000. Voltaire says, that when he wrote, Moscow was twenty miles in circumference, and that its inhabitants amounted to 500,000. Its present inhabitants are reckoned at 277,000, besides 50,000 in the adjacent villages. [*Coxe.*] 200,000 previous to the pestilence in 1771. [*Pinkerton.*]

Riga, a city of Livonia, lat. 56° 55′, lon. 24° E. contains 27,000 inhabitants. [*Reichard.*]

Curiosities.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Russia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civilized nations. She can, however, produce many stupendous monuments of the publick spirit of her sovereigns; particularly the canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia is full of old sepulchres of an unknown nation, whose instruments and arms were all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural history at Petersburg, is a rhinoceros, dug up on the banks of the river Valni, with his skin, and the hair upon it perfect. The great bell of Moscow, the largest in the world, weighs 432,000 pounds. It is 19 feet high, 63 feet 11 inches in circumference, at bottom; its greatest thickness 23 inches. [*Coxe*, who measured it.] It was cast in the reign of the empress Anne; but the beam on which it hung, being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broken out of it: so that it lately lay in a manner useless. Mr. Bruce, in his late memoirs, mentions a bell at Moscow, founded in Czar Boris's time, 19 feet high, 23 in diameter, 64 in circumference, and two in thickness, that weighed 336,000 pounds. The building of Petersburg, and raising it of a sudden from a few fishing huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps a curiosity hardly to be paralleled since the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The same may be said of the fortress of Constradt, in the neighbourhood of Petersburg, which is almost impregnable. The fortress and city employed for some years 300,000 men, in laying its foundations, and driving piles, night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The whole plan, with a very little assistance from some German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he built for his people, at the time when they could hardly be said to have possessed a ship in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful

than all, he often wrought in person in all these amazing works, with the same assiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

General Remarks.] Russia is indebted for its present flourishing state to the efforts of two great monarchs, succeeding each other at no great distance of time. Had the intermediate sovereigns between Peter the Great and Catherine the second, who filled up the interval of 37 years, been capable of following the steps of the first of these monarchs, who found, at the beginning of the last century, his native country uncivilized and desolate, this rising empire would have been much farther advanced in wealth and prosperity. The present condition of this country requires, that the increase of its population should be the principal object of the attention of government. It is the obvious policy of Russia to avoid wars, to encourage marriages, and to promote agriculture, manufactures and commerce. Though its provinces are of an enormous extent, though its army is the largest in Europe, the Russian empire is not yet become formidable to the other great European powers. Its vast dominions, peopled in the more remote parts by numerous, fierce, and restless barbarians, contain as many domestick enemies, as in a great measure, engages the attention and occupies the power of the state. The neighbouring Persian and Turkish dominions, easily provoked to hostilities, require large bodies of troops to guard the frontiers, which cannot be withdrawn without endangering the safety of the whole empire.

The late empress of Russia, notwithstanding the very unfavourable circumstances which attended her taking possession of the government of that empire, during her reign, filled her high station (her shocking cruelties and unequalled injustice to the unfortunate Poles excepted) with distinguished reputation and ability. She encouraged learning and the arts, and endeavoured greatly to extend the commerce of her subjects; though the extreme despotism of the Russian government is a great impediment to the progress of the arts and sciences, and to the real prosperity of this empire. Her imperial majesty, however, effected many beneficial and important regulations in the interior police of her vast empire, and particularly in the courts of justice. One of these is, the abolition of the use of torture; and she also adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of prisons. The new code of laws, for which she gave her instructions, is yet wanting to give political felicity to an opressed people. But one of the most remarkable transactions of her reign was the establishment of an armed neutrality, for the protection of the commerce of nations not at war, from any attacks or insults from belligerent powers. By the code of maritime law, which she endeavoured to enforce, neutral ships enjoyed a free navigation, even from port to port, and on the coasts of belligerent powers; and all effects belonging to the subjects of belligerent powers were to be considered as free, on board such neutral ships, excepting only such goods as were expressly stipulated contraband in her treaty of commerce with Great-Britain. It was in 1780 that her imperial majesty invited the powers not at war to accede to this armed neutrality. Those who engaged in it were to make a common cause of it at sea, against any of the belligerent powers who should violate, with respect to neutral nations, these principles of maritime law. The armed

neutrality was acceded to the same year, by the kings of Sweden and Denmark, and by the States General.

At the close of the year 1790, the empress had the gratification to see her conquests no longer bounded by the course of the Danube. The capture of Ismael completed her conquests in this quarter. Eight different times were the Russians repulsed with the slaughter of many of their bravest soldiers. At the ninth, General Suwarrow put himself at their head, and snatching a standard out of an officer's hand, he ran directly towards the town, passed the trenches, and climbing up the wall, planted it himself upon the ramparts. "There, (he cried) my fellow soldiers, behold your standard in the power of your enemy, unless you will preserve it; but I know you are brave, and will not suffer it to remain in their hands." This speech had the desired effect. It was taken by storm on the 22d of December, 1790; and it is said the siege and capture cost the Russians the loss of 10,000 men. The most shocking part of this affair remains to be told. The garrison, whose bravery merited, and would have received from a generous foe, the highest honours, were most inhumanly massacred, in cold blood, by the merciless Russians, to the amount of upwards of 30,000 men, by their own account, and the place was given up to the most unrestrained fury of the brutal soldiery. The most horrid outrages were perpetrated on the defenceless inhabitants; and the conduct of the conquerors, was more like a horde of cannibals than of a civilized people, and, together with their conduct since towards the unfortunate Poles, proves that the Russians are still barbarians.

Catharine II. empress of all the Russias, died suddenly Nov. 9, 1796, and was succeeded by her son Paul I. who was born Oct. 1, 1754, and died suddenly March 23, 1801. He was succeeded by his eldest son, the present emperor, Alexander I. who was born Dec. 23, 1777, and married to the princess Louisa of Baden, May 21, 1792.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE,

COMPREHENDS England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland, with the adjacent islands and foreign possessions, in the several quarters of the world. England, Wales and Scotland, are called Great-Britain.

TABLE.

GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Areas in Square Miles.		Population.		Population for every Square Mile
92,294	Kitchin	According to some Authors only	9,000,000	
104,701	Guthrie, or Templeman	To others	11,800,000	115
100,928	St. Ueb.	Probably	11,000,000	109

A. GREAT-BRITAIN.

Extent and Divisions.	Areas in Sq. Miles.	Population.	Population for every Sq. Mile.
Long. 2° E. 6° 20′ W.	Kitchin 70,096	9,300,000, but more probably 8,300,000	105
Lat. 49°—58° 50′— The Shetland Islands to above 61°	St. U. 79,712		
England and Wales.	54,112	8,000,000 5,500,000 Dr. Price 8,447,200 Chalmer 7,000,000	129
In England are 28 Cities, above 650 Towns, and 1,586,000 Dwellings. Chalmer.			
Scotland.	25,600	1,300,000, others 1,500,000	51

B. IRELAND.

	21,216	2,500,000 2,161,514 B.	117

England is divided into the following 40 Counties or Shires.

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*	*Inhabitants.*	*Houses.*
1. Middlesex	London	800,000, others 900,000	130,000 in 1787
2. Surry	Southwark	1,000,000 Busching 750,000 Wendeborn 862,500 medium	

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
3. Essex	Colchester, Harwich
4. Hertfordshire	Hertford
5. Kent	Canterbury, Dover
6. Sussex	Chichester, Winchelsea
7. Buckinghamshire	Buckingham
8. Bedfordshire	Bedford
9. Huntingdonshire	Huntingdon
10. Cambridgeshire	Cambridge, 6000, Ely
11. Suffolk	Ipswich, Bury, Newmarket
12. Norfolk	Norwich, Yarmouth
13. Oxfordshire	Oxford
14. Berkshire	Reading, Windsor
15. Gloucestershire	Gloucester
16. Worcestershire	Worcester, 25,000
17. Monmouthshire	Monmouth

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
18. Herefordshire	Hereford
19. Shropshire	Shrewsbury
20. Staffordshire	Stafford, Litchfield
21. Warwickshire	Warwick, Coventry, 25,000, Birmingham, 50,000
22. Leicestershire	Leicester
23. Derbyshire	Derby
24. Nottinghamshire	Nottingham, 17,000
25. Lincolnshire	Lincoln
26. Rutlandshire	Oakham
27. Northamptonshire	Northampton
28. Somersetshire	Bath, Bristol, 90,000
29. Wiltshire	Salisbury
30. Hampshire	Winchester, Portsmouth, Southampton
31. Dorsetshire	Dorchester
32. Devonshire	Exeter, Plymouth
33. Cornwall	Launceston
34. Yorkshire	York, Hull, Halifax, Leeds
35. Cheshire	Chester, 14,000
36. Durham	Durham
37. Lancashire	Lancaster, Manchester, 28,000, Liverpool, 40,000
38. Westmoreland	Appleby
39. Northumberland	Newcastle, 40,000
40. Cumberland	Carlisle, Whitehaven

Wales contains 7011 square miles, and about 300,000 people. It is divided into 12 counties: Pembrokeshire, Carmarthenshire, Glamorganshire, Brecknockshire, Cardiganshire, Radnorshire, Montgomeryshire, Merionethshire, Flintshire, Denbighshire, Carnarvonshire, Anglesea.

Scotland is divided into 31 shires and two stewardships; 18 counties belonging to South-Scotland, 15 to North-Scotland. Their names are the following: 1. Medlothian (or Edinburg.) 2. West-Lothian. 3. East-Lothian. 4. Merse or Berwick. 5. Roxborough. 6. Selkirk. 7. Peebles. 8. Dumfries. 9. Galloway. 10. Air. 11. Lanerk. 12. Dumbarton. 13. Renfrew. 14. Sterling. 15. Clacmannan. 16. Fife. 17. Kinross. 18. Bute. 19. Argyle. 20. Perth. 21. Forfar. 22. Kinkardin. 23. Aberdeen. 24. Bamff. 25. Nairne. 26. Elgin. 27. Inverness. 28. Cromartie. 29. Ross. 30. Sutherland. 31. Caithness, and the two stewarties. 32. Kirbudbright, and 33. Orkney and Shetland Islands. The chief towns are Edinburg, 81,865 inhabitants, Glasgow 30,000, Perth 11,000, Aberdeen 18,000, Inverness 11,000, Dumfries 5000.

Ireland is divided into four provinces, those of *Leinster*, *Ulster*, *Connaught* and *Munster*. Leinster contains the following 12 counties: 1. Dublin. 2. Louth. 3. Wicklow. 4. Wexford. 5. Longford. 6. East-Meath. 7. West-Meath. 8. King's County. 9. Queen's County. 10. Kilkenny. 11. Kildare. 12. Carlow.—Ulster contains nine coun-

ties: 13. Down. 14. Armagh. 15 Monaghan. 16. Cavan. 17. Antrim. 18. Londonderry. 19. Tyrone. 20. Farmanagh. 21. Donegall.—To Connaught belong five counties: 22. Leitrim. 23. Roscommon. 24. Mayo. 25. Sligo. 26. Galway.—Munster contains six counties: 27. Clare. 28. Corke. 29. Kerry. 30. Limerick. 31. Tipperary. 32. Waterford. The chief towns of this kingdom are the following: Dublin, the capital of Ireland, contains about 160,000 inhabitants, (See Kutner's Letters) Corke 87,000, Limerick 32,000, Waterford and Galway.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS BEYOND THE SEAS.

1. In EUROPE the fortress of Gibralter, on the coast of Spain, 3,200 inhabitants; island of Corsica, 150,000 inhabitants.

2. In AFRICA Cabo Corse, on the coast of Guinea, and some other forts there and near the Gambia, and the island of St. Helena.

3. In ASIA the extensive countries of Bengal, Bahar, and part of Orixa: The capital of Bengal is Calcutta, or Fort William, the residence of the governour-general of the English East-India settlements. These territories are computed to contain 10,000,000 inhabitants, and to be in extent nearly 150,000 square miles. 2. Large settlements on the coast of Coromandel, of which Madras is the capital, containing 80,000 inhabitants. 3. The settlements of Bombay and Surat, on the Malabar coast, and many other forts and factories on the continent of India, and the Islands of Sumatra, Bally and Banca.

4. In AMERICA the extensive provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, Novia-Scotia, New-Brunswick, settlements in Labrador and Hudson's Bay, the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John. In the *West-Indies*, the Bahama islands, Bermudas, Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Antigua, Montserat, Nevis, Grenada and the Grenadines, Barbuda, Dominica, St. Vincent, Anguilla.* These appendages to the British empire, we shall describe more particularly in their proper places, and shall proceed to consider separately the three grand divisions of the British empire, ENGLAND, SCOTLAND and IRELAND.

ENGLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.
Length 380, Breadth 300 } between { 50° and 56° North latitude. 2° East, and 6° 20′ West longitude.

ENGLAND, including Wales, is the largest and most southern part of the island of Great-Britain, which is itself the principal of the European Islands. It is every where surrounded by the sea, except on that part where it joins on the north with a narrow neck, to Scotland. Its general figure is triangular, with one point to the north, another

* The West-India Islands, since the war against France, have been in a revolutionary state, and are often changing masters. For the present therefore we preserve the former account of them.

to the east, and another to the west. Of three sides, the western is the longest and most irregular, being broken and intersected by various points of land and arms of the sea. The eastern side of the triangle is 345 miles, the southern 340, the western 425 miles.

Name and Divisions ancient and modern.] The word *England* is derived, probably, from Anglen, a province now subject to his Danish majesty, which furnished a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this island. In the time of the Romans, the whole island went by the name of Britannia. The western tract of England, which is almost separated from the rest by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called Wales, or the *land of strangers*, because inhabited by the Belgick Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were strangers to the old natives.

The Romans divided England into,

1. Britannia Prima, which contained the southern parts of the kingdom.

2. Britannia Secunda, containing the western parts, comprehending Wales; and,

3. Maxima Cæsariensis, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, and sometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forte and Clyde.

To these divisions some add the Flavia Cæsariensis, which they suppose to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England about the year 450, and when they were established in the year 582, their chief leaders appropriated to themselves, after the manner of the other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the most instrumental in conquering; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political republick, consisting of seven kingdoms. But in time of war a chief was chosen out of the seven kings; for which reason it has been called a political republick, its constitution greatly resembling that of ancient Greece.

Since the Norman invasion England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progress of the judges for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. These circuits are, 1. Home circuit. 2. Norfolk circuit. 3. Oxford circuit. 4. Midland circuit. 5. Western circuit. 6. Northern circuit.

Middlesex is not comprehended; and Cheshire is left out of these circuits, because, being a county palatine, it enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The same may be said of Wales, which is divided into four circuits. The circuits of Wales are, 1. North-East circuit. 2. North-West circuit. 3. South-East circuit. 4. South-West circuit.

IN ENGLAND, ARE

40	Counties which send to parliament	80 knights.
25	Cities (Ely none, London four)	50 citizens.
167	Boroughs, two each	334 burgesses.
5	Boroughs (Abington, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham Ferras and Monmouth) one each	5 burgesses

2 Universities	4 representatives.
8 Cinque ports (Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, & their three dependants, Rye, Winchelsea and Seaford,) two each	16 barons.

WALES.

12 Counties	12 knights.
12 Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none) one each	12 burgesses.

SCOTLAND.

33 Shires	30 knights.
67 Cities and Boroughs	15 burgesses.

Total 558

Besides the 52 counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, consisting of certain districts, to which the liberties and jurisdictions peculiar to a county have been granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county distinct from Middlesex; the cities of York, Chester, Bristol, Norwich, Worcester, and the towns of Kingston upon Hull, Newcastle upon the Tyne and Berwick upon Tweed, are counties of themselves, distinct from those in which they lie.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained; for every borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city.

Face of the Country and Soil.] The face of the country in England affords all that beautiful variety which can be found in the most extensive tracts of the globe. In some parts verdant plains extend as far as the eye can reach, watered by copious streams and covered with innumerable cattle. In others the pleasing vicissitudes of gently rising hills and bending vales, fertile in corn, waving with wood, and interspersed with meadows, offer the most delightful landscapes of rural opulence and beauty. Some tracts abound with prospects of the more romantick kind; lofty mountains, craggy rocks, deep narrow dells, and tumbling torrents: Nor are there wanting, as a contrast to so many agreeable scenes, the gloomy features of black barren moors and wide uncultivated heaths. On the whole, however, no country has a smaller proportion of land absolutely sterile and incapable of culture.

The richest parts of the country are in general, the midland and southern. Towards the north it partakes of the barrenness of the neighbouring Scotland. The eastern course is in many parts sandy and marshy. To the west the whole country of Wales is a mountainous tract, intermixed indeed with vales of great fertility. Another range of rude and elevated land, sometimes rising into lofty mountains extends from the borders of Scotland to the very heart of England, running perpendicularly from north to south, and forming a natural division between the eastern and western sides of the kingdom, during its course. The county of Cornwall, too, which, like a great promontory, juts into the Atlantick Ocean, is a rough and

hilly tract ; and a similar character prevails in parts of the adjacent counties. All these mountainous regions, however, contribute greatly to the wealth and advantage of the whole, by their ample mineral treasures.

Rivers.] The rivers of England are numerous ; but the extent of the country will not admit of such a length of course as would allow them to vie in greatness with the rivers of the continent. Those of the northern parts, arising from the middle ridge of hills, have but a short run each way to the sea. In the midland districts, the Trent and Ouse find room for a moderate length of course. The Severn in the west, springing near the sea from the mountain Plinlimmon, and taking a large semicircular sweep to reach the same sea again, flows over a space which entitles it to rank at least as the second river of England. Its course is about 150 miles. The Thames takes its rise not far from the western side in Cotswold hills, and runs across to the eastern sea. It is navigable for large ships to London bridge. Its principal branches are the Cherwes, the Jenu, the Kennett, the Mole and Dee. The course is reckoned at 140 miles. The Humber and Mersey are considerable streams. Medway river falls into the Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable for the larger ships to Chatham. [*Aikin.*]

Bridges.] The bridges of the kingdom are excellent like the roads. But what is most surprising is their bridges of iron. The first was erected across the Severn in 1779, at Colebrookdale. It rests on abutments of stone. The main rib consists of two pieces each 70 feet long, connected by a dove-tail joint, fastened with screws. The span of the arch is 100 feet 6 inches, height from the base line to the centre 40 feet, the weight of the cast iron 378 tons and a half.

A few years since, an iron bridge was thrown over the harbour at Sunderland; its height is 100 feet, the span of the arch 236 feet. It is composed of separate pieces, in order to render repairs more practicable. Several other bridges are constructed on this unrivalled plan.

Lakes and Bays.] The lakes of England are few, and inconsiderable for extent. The principal of them lie in the north-western counties.

Various bays, creeks, and inlets of the sea are formed all round the coast. On the eastern side, the most considerable are the Humber, an arm of the sea, into which many rivers pour their streams. Then, the Wash, a broad but much shallower inlet, the sands of which are for the most part bare at low water. The mouth of the Thames next opens into a sort of funnel, produced by the retiring coast of Essex on the one hand and Kent on the other. Then succeed the Straits of Dover, where the island of Great-Britain so nearly approaches the continent. The Isle of Wight, the harbour of Portsmouth, and the creek running up to Southampton, break the regularity of the southern coast ; which afterwards makes several bays and semicircular sweeps in its progress to the Land's end. On turning to the western side, the most remarkable of all the inlets, the spacious St. George's or Bristol channel appears, which, with the wide mouth of the Severn, cuts deeply into the broadest part of the island. The opposite Welsh coast is broken by various bays and indentations ; and beyond the

next turn of the land succeeds the large and deep bay of Cardigan. Then the isle of Anglesea repels the waters of the Irish sea, and gives a new direction to the coast, which running inwards, forms a kind of vast bay with the Lancashire and Cumberland coasts, into which several broad and shallow mouths of rivers enter, and which is protected to the seaward by the Isle of Man. Salway-frith terminates the English coast, and forms a natural boundary on part of the Scotch border, which the Cheviot hills and the Tweed nearly complete. [*Aikin.*]

Climate.] With respect to climate England is situated in the northern part of the temperate zone, so that it enjoys but a scanty share of the genial influence of the sun. Its atmosphere is inclined to chillness and moisture, subject to frequent and sudden changes; and is more favourable to the growth than to the ripening of the products of the earth. No country, in so northern a latitude, is clothed with so beautiful and lasting a verdure; but the harvests, especially in the northern parts, frequently suffer from unseasonable rains; and fruits often fall short of their perfect maturity. The rigours of winter, however, as well as the parching heats of summer, are felt here in a much less degree than in parallel climates on the continent;* a circumstance common to all islands. Domestick fires are kindled in October. While the sea ports in Holland and Germany are every winter locked up with ice, those of England, and even of Scotland, are very seldom known to suffer this inconvenience. The western side of the kingdom, recieving first the great clouds from the Atlantick Ocean, which are afterwards intercepted in their passage by the middle ridge of hills, is considerably more exposed to rain than the eastern; but the latter is more frequently involved in fogs and mists. The whole country, some particular spots excepted, is sufficiently healthy; and the natural longevity of its inhabitants is equal to that of almost any region. [*Aikin.*]

Productions.] All the most valuable productions, both animal and vegetable, of this country, have been imported from the continent, and have been kept up and improved by constant attention. Originally, this great island seems to have been, like the wilds of America, almost entirely overrun with wood, and peopled only by the inhabitants of the forest. Here formerly roamed the bear, the wolf and the wild boar, now totally extirpated. Large herds of stags ranged through the woods, roebucks bounded over the hills, and wild bulls grazed in the marshy pastures. By degrees the woods were destroyed, in order to make way for cultivation; the marshes were drained; and the wild animals, invaded in their retreats, gradually disappeared, and their places were supplied by the domestick kinds. England now possesses no other wild quadrupeds than some of the smaller kinds; such as the fox, the wild cat, the badger, the martin, and others of the weasel kind; the otter, the hedgehog, the hare and rabbit; the squirrel, dormouse, mole, and several species of the rat and mouse. On the other hand, every kind of domestick an-

* The winter of 1794-95 was an exception, being remarkably severe, beyond what was ever known before in the memory of the oldest men.

imal, imported from abroad, has here been reared to the greatest degree of perfection. The horse has been trained up for all the various purposes of strength and swiftness, so as to excel in those qualities the same animal in every other country. The horned cattle have been brought to the largest size and greatest justness of shape. The different races of sheep in England are variously distinguished, either for uncommon size, goodness of flesh, and plenty or fineness of wool.* The deer of the parks, which are originally a foreign breed, are superior in beauty of skin and delicacy of flesh to those of most countries. Even the several kinds of dogs have been trained to degrees of courage, strength and sagacity, rarely to be met with elsewhere.

The improvement in the vegetable products of this island is not less striking than the animal. Nuts, acorns, crabs, and a few wild berries, were almost all the variety of vegetable food which the woods could boast. To foreign countries and to the efforts of culture the inhabitants are indebted for their bread, the roots and greens of their tables, and all their garden fruits. The barley and hops for their malt liquors, and apples for their cider, are equally the gifts of other lands. The meanest labourer is now fed with more wholesome and delicate aliments than the petty kings of the country could obtain in its savage and uncultivated state.

The rivers and seas of England are stocked with a great variety of fish, which yield a plentiful article of provision to all ranks of people. The river fish, indeed, from the populousness of the country, and the number of fishers, are in many parts much diminished. But the sea is an inexhaustible source; and every exertion of industry, to procure food from thence, is amply repaid. The fisheries are at present a great object of attention; and the whole sea coast is enlivened by numerous inhabitants, who gain their chief subsistence from the deep. [*Aikin.*]

Forests.] The first Norman kings of England, partly for political purposes, that they might more effectually enslave their new subjects, and partly from the wantonness of power, converted immense tracts of grounds into forests for the benefit of hunting, and these were governed by laws peculiar to themselves: So that it was necessary, about the time of passing the Manga Charta, to form a code of the forest laws; and Justices in Eyre, so called from their sitting in the open air, were appointed to see them observed. By degrees those vast tracts were disforested; and the chief forests, properly so called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are those of Windsor, New-Forest, the Forest of Dean, and Sherwood Forest.

Metals and Minerals.] Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall deservedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter especially, some ages before that of the Christian era; and since the English have found the method of manufacturing their tin into plates, and white iron, they are of immense benefit to the nation. An ore called Mundick is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded till about 70 years ago: Sir Gilbert

* It is thought that in England 12 millions of fleeces are annually shorn, which at a medium of 2s. a fleece, make 1,200,000*l.* sterling. [*Guthrie.*]

Clark discovered the art of manufacturing it, and it is said now to bring in 150,000l. a year, and to equal in goodness the best Spanish copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of *lapis calaminaris* for making brass. Those tin works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the stannary laws; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Cornish miners is said to amount to 100,000. Some mines of copper have lately been discovered at Wales, which are of considerable extent, yield great profit, and have much reduced the price of that metal. Some gold has likewise been discovered in Cornwall, and the English lead is impregnated with silver. The English coined silver is particularly known by roses, and that of Wales by that prince's cap of feathers. Devonshire and other counties of England produce marble; but the best kind, which resembles the Egyptian granite, is excessively hard to work. Quarries of freestone are found in many places. In Northumberland and Cheshire are alum and salt pits. The English fullers' earth is of such consequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under severe penalties. Pit and sea coal is found in many counties in England; but the city of London, to encourage the nursery of seamen, is chiefly supplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the bishoprick of Durham. The cargoes are shipped at Newcastle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries is a valuable article.—See article *Wealth and Commerce.*

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs and Diversions.] There are in England 40 counties, 1,555,392 houses and 9,164,832 inhabitants.

The English, with regard to their persons, are in general of a proper size, have good shapes, regular features, and florid complexions. The women are remarkably beautiful; their elegant shape, their graceful air and their delicate features and complexions form an assemblage of beauty superior to that of any other kingdom in Europe. In point of cleanliness, the English excel all nations in the world. At the same time, their nerves are so remarkably delicate, that they are susceptible of the least impression, and are often very strongly, too frequently mortally, affected by imagination only. They feel the whole weight of the evils they fear, and sometimes sink beneath the burden of mental suggestions. Yet when real danger approaches, they meet it with an astonishing intrepidity and constancy of mind. Fearless of death, because they prefer it to slavery, they advance against the enemy in the field with a noble alacrity, and stand the most violent attacks with unshaken firmness. With regard to the English seamen, they are confessedly more active, skilful and intrepid, than any other mariners in the world.

This remarkable sensibility of the nerves produces another particular almost as general as the former; they feel for every object in distress, and participate in the sufferings of others. Hence those generous subscriptions, so frequently set on foot, and munificently filled, for the relief of others. Even their enemies partake of their benevolence; and the generous instance they gave during the last war of their unbounded charity for the support of the French prisoners, will be transmitted with applause to posterity by future historians.

The honour and integrity of the English merchants in their dealings are known in every part of the commercial world. The word of an eminent merchant is considered as sufficient for any sum of money; and many thousand pounds worth of goods are every day bought and sold on the royal exchange without any other security. But this ingenuous method of carrying on their commerce too often lays them open to the arts of designing men. Honest and candid themselves, they expect to find the same virtues in others, and never suspect that a fair and plausible behaviour can even form the deceitful surface of villany and design, till dear-bought experience convinces them of their mistake.

The works of the English mechanicks are superior to those of the same kind of any other handicrafts-men in Europe. They are not indeed famous for inventions, but they never fail of improving upon those of others. Nor is this want of invention general; many of the English artists excel in both, and some of the most capital discoveries of the two last centuries owe their birth to the inhabitants of this country: Among which may be reckoned the steam engine, the horizontal watch, the quicksilver and grid-iron pendulums, the artificial magnets, the speculum top, the quadrant for taking the sun's altitude at sea by reflection, &c. &c. No people in the world think so closely as the English upon any subject. Blessed with a clear apprehension, and fearless of difficulties, they fix the attention on a single point, and pursue it with astonishing perseverance.

Wendeborn in his view of England observes, that "There are in no country such large contributions raised for the support of the poor as in England; yet there is no where so great a number of them; and their condition, in comparison with the poor of other countries, appears truly the most miserable: They never seem to be apprehensive, or to think of making any provision for a time of want. In Germany, and other northern countries of Europe, the poor keep always in mind, that it is cold in winter, and that no harvest or fruits can be reaped from the earth while it is covered with snow. On this account, they consider in time the warmer clothing they will then require, and lay up such a store of provisions as their circumstances allow, in order to prepare themselves in the best manner possible for the inclemency of that season. But in England it seems as if the poor and necessitous never looked forward, or would not trouble themselves to think of what may happen to them in future. They neither foresee the winter's cold, nor the scarcity of that season: and therefore when it arrives, are the most forlorn beings imaginable. The lower class of people have no disposition to be frugal or provident: When trade becomes dull and employment scanty, they who maintained themselves by their labour must either beg, or obtain support for themselves and their families from the parish. The watermen of the Thames, whose gains are very sufficient for their livelihood, when the river, is frozen or covered with shoals of ice, are often seen dragging a boat or little ship through the streets of London, and begging alms of the publick. In those countries and towns where manufactures are carried on, there is, for this very reason, the greatest number of poor; for as soon as any particular branch of

them is on the decline, the workmen who were employed in it, are threatened with want, and in danger of starving. The number of the poor in such countries raises the poor rates very high, and consequently makes both land and houses less eligible to purchase; for according to the value or rent of houses, the poor rates are levied; so that the tenant of a middling house of about forty pounds yearly rent, in a country where four shillings in the pound are demanded for the support of the poor, must pay a yearly tax of eight pounds for poor rates.

In Germany there is a great difference as to value, between the dresses of the different ranks of people: but in England, this distinction holds in a much smaller degree. The clothing manufactured for the poor and common people is in small proportion to their number; and few or none of them like to wear it. Even in country places it is but little used; and in London or the great towns, it is seldom or never to be seen. All do their best to wear fine clothes; and those who cannot purchase them new, buy the old at second hand, that they may at least have the appearance of finery. Servants in general live nearly as well as their masters and mistresses; and when servant men or maids marry, they frequently begin the married state with a life of more expense, or rather profusion, than their circumstances will admit, and continue the same until children and want force them to apply for bread to the parish. The English thieves and rogues usually say, "we can but be hanged at last." In like manner, servants and others, who, by their extravagance and mismanagement, bring poverty upon themselves, feel as little contrition, and say, "the parish must maintain us." Such instances, however, of worthlessness and depravity, render the wealthy and industrious not very willing to contribute to the support of the poor: And the poor themselves generally thank neither God nor man for the charity that feeds them.

The number of those who are born poor, and of those who from misfortune or misconduct become so in time, is very great. The first are brought up by charities; the latter are maintained, and at last buried out of the same fund. No person, therefore, need wonder that the taxes which are yearly collected under act of parliament for the support of the poor, should, in England alone, amount to three millions sterling;* a sum which must appear altogether extraordinary, when it is considered, that the revenues of many kingdoms do hardly by half amount to so much. At the same time it ought to be remembered that the extremely necessitous poor only are supported by it; that the streets of London, notwithstanding all this, are crowded with beggars; that the poor blind, led by dogs, beg charity, and that this is equally the case, in proportion, in the country.

It is supposed, that a million of poor people are maintained at the publick expense. From a very accurate calculation, made in the year 1680, it appears that the annual sum, requisite to provide for the poor, amounted to 669,392 pounds sterling. In the year 1764 it

* Sir John Sinclair, in his history of the publick revenue of the British empire, page 115, speaking of the poor rate, says, it is "a grievous burden, which, it is supposed, amounts, at present, to at least three millions per ann."

had risen to upwards of 1,200,000 pounds ; and, in the year 1773, it exceeded, as before mentioned, three millions ; but even this sum was not sufficient for the purpose.

There are numbers of British born subjects, such as the inhabitants of some of the western islands, who are unacquainted with any coin ; and others, who, perhaps, during their whole lives, never tasted a morsel of bread. An old man from one of the Orkneys, arrived on the northern coast of Scotland, and tasting there some bread, cried out, " Oh ! how luxuriously the people live here !"

Dr. Franklin was of the opinion, that " the enormous sums, collected annually for the poor in England, increased their number as well as their wretchedness ; and that perhaps it might be for the benefit of the nation, if poor rates were entirely abolished, and the distribution of charities left to every man's own discretion."

The customs of the English, since the beginning of the last century have undergone an almost total alteration. Their ancient hospitality subsists but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering occasions. Many of their favourite diversions are now disused. Those remaining are operas, dramatick exhibitions, ridottos, and sometimes masquerades in or near London ; but concerts of musick and card and dancing assemblies are common all over the kingdom. The barbarous diversions of boxing and prize fighting, though prohibited, are as frequent in England as the shows of gladiators were in Rome. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diversion, though without answering the purposes of the rich : For the farmers and country people destroy the game in their nests, which they dare not kill with the gun.

The people of England love rather be neat than fine in their apparel. Few, even of the lowest tradesmen, on Sundays, carry about them less than 10l. in clothing, and even many beggars in the streets appear decent in their dress. In short, none but the most abandoned of both sexes are otherwise ; and the appearance of an artisan or manufacturer on holidays, is commonly an indication of his industry.

Religion.] The established religion in that part of Great-Britain called England is the episcopal church of England, a particular branch of protestantism, which in its liturgy, and still more in its government, differs from the continental protestant churches. It has preserved much more of the ancient hierarchy of the Roman catholick church, together with its dignities and jurisdiction. The king is the head of the church, but he has no spiritual powers ; he has the right of calling together and dissolving the convocation or ecclesiastical parliament, by which the church was formerly governed, but which has, for many years past, not been allowed to meet. England is divided into two ecclesiastical provinces, that of Canterbury and York : The archbishop of Canterbury, who is primate of England, has 21 bishopricks belonging to his province; and three bishopricks are under the archbishop of York. All these prelates are lords of parliament, in which they represent the clergy ; they have their seats in the House of Lords. There is besides, the bishop of Sodor and Man, belonging to the province of York, who has no seat in the House of Peers. The other dignitaries of the church are the deans and

prebendaries of the chapters, archdeacons, and rural deans; the inferior clergy consist of priests and deacons, who, according to the church benefices they occupy, are called rectors, vicars, and curates of parishes.

The revenues of the church of England are large; the present value of the sees and livings is supposed to amount to 3,000,000l. sterling. This income arises chiefly from the tythes, the value of which increases with the improvements of lands.

All other denominations of Christians, called Dissenters, and Jews are very liberally tolerated. There are many other protestant sects in England, among whom the Unitarians, Baptists, Quakers and Methodists, are the most conspicuous. The number of Roman catholicks in England is estimated at 60,000; they have about 350 priests; some peers of the kingdom, and several other ancient and opulent families belong to that communion, whose exercise of religion is under gentle restrictions; their number is said to be decreasing. There are about 60,000 Quakers and 12,000 Jewish families. The numerous French and German inhabitants in London form several Lutheran and Calvinistical parishes.

Learning.] With respect to the state of knowledge and science, England is entitled to an eminent rank among the first nations of Europe. It must, however, be owned, that its superiority with respect to sciences was more conspicuous in the beginning of the last century than now; though it has, upon the whole, not gone backwards in the sciences, it has not been able, amidst the great exertions of other countries, to leave them behind at the same distance. England has but two universities, or rather collections of universities, at Oxford and Cambridge, in which the wealth and splendour of the foundations are deserving of admiration, and a proof of the estimation in which learning has always been held in this country. It cannot be denied that these universities, though gradually much reformed, preserve still too much of the spirit of the age of Alfred, and that they have lost, long ago, the lead in science and national literature, which is at present transferred to the metropolis. Schools are very numerous in England: Besides some colleges of ancient foundation, there are many private schools and academies. As government does not in the least concern itself in the education of youth, any person, however qualified, is at liberty to open a school; a liberty which does often a great deal of mischief. The lower classes of people are much neglected in their education, and much more so in England than in Scotland. To this source of corruption we must trace the frequency of crimes, equally injurious to the prosperity and honour of this nation; an evil which is constantly increasing, and which the horrors of Newgate and Botany Bay will not be able to counteract. The zeal of many well meaning persons, in establishing charitable institutions of education, called Sunday schools, is very laudable; and it is to be hoped these and other charity schools will be improved into permanent and effectual remedies of the evil before mentioned.

London has, besides the royal society of sciences, an antiquarian society, a society for promoting arts and manufactures, an academy of painting and sculpture, a grand collection of natural curiosities,

books, and MSS. called the British Museum. Oxford and Cambridge possess large libraries ; of which the Bodleian library, at Oxford, is the most celebrated. England abounds with magnificent seats of noblemen and gentlemen, adorned with excellent collections of masterpieces of painting, and surrounded by parks and gardens, which, both by nature and art, form some of the most beautiful pieces of scenery in Europe. [*For the names of the most distinguished literary characters which England has produced, the reader is referred to the list of learned men at the close of this work.*]

Universities.] We have already mentioned the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which have been the seminaries of great numbers of learned men for many ages, and rank amongst the highest literary institutions in Europe. It is certain that their magnificent buildings, which in splendour and architecture rival the most superb royal edifices, the rich endowments, the liberal ease and tranquillity enjoyed by those who inhabit them, surpass all the ideas which foreigners, who visit them, conceive of literary societies. So respectable are they in their foundations, that each university sends two members to the British parliament, and their chancellors and officers have ever a civil jurisdiction over their students, the better to secure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed those of many other universities. In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls : The former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the students chiefly maintain themselves. The university is of great antiquity : It is supposed to have been a considerable place even in the time of the Romans ; and Camden says, that " wise antiquity did, even in the British age, consecrate this place to the Muses." It is said to have been styled a university before the time of king Alfred ; and the best historians admit, that this most excellent prince was only a restorer of learning here. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford ; one for divinity, another for philosophy, and a third for grammar.

The number of officers, fellows, and scholars maintained at present by the revenues of this university, is about 1000, and the number of such scholars as live at their own charge is usually about 2000 ; the whole amounting to 3000 persons, besides a great number of inferior officers and servants, belonging to the several colleges and halls. Here are four terms every year for publick exercises, lectures, and disputations, and set days and hours when the professors of every faculty read their lectures ; and in some of the colleges are publick lectures, to which all persons are admitted.

There are libraries belonging to the several colleges ; but besides these, there are two other publick libraries, the university library and the Radcliffe library. The university library is usually called the Bodleian library, from Sir Thomas Bodley, its principal founder. It is a large lofty structure, in the form of a Roman H, and is considered as one of the finest libraries in Europe, from the number and value of its books. The original library has been prodigiously increased, by many large and valuable collections of Greek and oriental manuscripts, as well as other choice and curious books. The Radcliffe library is a sumptuous pile of buildings ; and was built at the sole

expense of that eminent physician, Dr. John Radcliffe, who bequeathed forty thousand pounds for this purpose. The theatre at Oxford is also a very magnificent structure, which was erected by Sir Christopher Wren, at the expense of archbishop Sheldon. In this edifice are held the publick acts of the university; and when the theatre is properly filled, the vice-chancellor being seated in the centre of the semicircular part, the noblemen and doctors on his right and left hand, the proctors, and curators in their robes, the masters of arts, bachelors, and under graduates, in their respective habits and places, together with strangers of both sexes, it makes a most august appearance.

The whole number of fellows in the university of Cambridge are four hundred; and six hundred and sixty-six scholars, with about two hundred and thirty-six officers and servants of various kinds, who are maintained upon the foundation. These, however, are not all the students of the university; there are also two sorts of students called pensioners, the greater and the less: the greater pensioners are sons of the nobility, and of gentlemen of large fortunes, and are called fellow-commoners, because, though they are scholars, they dine with the fellows; the lesser pensioners dine with the scholars that are on the foundation, but live at their own expense. There are also a considerable number of poor scholars, called sizars, who wait upon the fellows and scholars, and the pensioners of both ranks, by whom they are in a great degree maintained: But the number of pensioners and sizars cannot be ascertained, as it is in a state of perpetual fluctuation.

The senate-house at Cambridge is a most elegant edifice, executed entirely in the Corinthian order, and is said to have cost sixteen thousand pounds. Trinity college library is also a very magnificent structure, and in Corpus Christi college library is a valuable collection of ancient manuscripts, which were preserved at the dissolution of the monasteries, and given to this college by archbishop Parker.

Antiquities and Curiosities, Natural and Artificial.] The antiquities of England are either British, Roman, Saxon, Danish, or Anglo-Normanick; but these, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient history. The chief British antiquities are those circles of stones, particularly that called Stonehenge in Wiltshire, which probably were places of worship in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is described as a regular circular structure. The body of the work consists of two circles and two ovals, which are thus composed: The upright stones are placed at three feet and a half distance from each other, and joined at the top by over-thwart stones, with tenons fitted to the mortises in the uprights, for keeping them in their due position. Some of these stones are vastly large, measuring two yards in breadth, one in thickness, and above seven in height; others are less in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with the chisel, and sometimes tapered; but the transomes, or over-thwart stones, are quite plain. The out side circle is near one hundred and eighty feet in diameter; between which and the next circle there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a surprising and awful effect upon the beholders.

Monuments of the same kind are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordshire, Cornwall, and other parts of England, as well as Scotland and the isles.

The Roman antiquities in England consist chiefly of altars and monumental inscriptions, which instruct us as to the legionary stations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of some of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the highest idea of the civil as well as military policy of those conquerors. Their vestiges are numerous. The remains of many Roman camps are discernible all over England; one particularly very little defaced, near Dorchester in Dorsetshire, where also is a Roman amphitheatre. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the publick repositories, contain a vast number of Roman arms, coins, fibulæ, trinkets, and the like, which have been found in England; but the most amazing monument of the Roman power in England, is the prætenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Frith, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at first consisted only of stakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with stone forts, and turrets at proper distances, so that each might have a speedy communication with the other, and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, to the north, and a military highway to the south. This prodigious work, however, was better calculated to strike the Scots and Picts with terror, than to give any real security to the Roman possessions. In some places, the wall, the vallum and the road, are plainly discernible; and the latter serves as a foundation for a modern work of the same kind carried on at the publick expense.

The Saxon antiquities in England consist chiefly in ecclesiastical edifices, and places of strength. The cathedral of Winchester served as the burying-place of several Saxon kings, whose bones were collected together by bishop Fox, in six large wooden chests. The British Museum contains several striking original specimens of their learning. Many Saxon characters, signed by the king and his nobles, with a plain cross instead of their names, are still to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witness, to his respective cross.

All England is full of Anglo-Normanick monuments, so called because though the princes under whom they were raised were of Norman origin, yet the expense was defrayed by Englishmen, with English money. Yorkminster and Westminster hall and abbey are, perhaps, the finest specimens to be found in Europe of that Gothick manner which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals and old churches in the kingdom are more or less in the same taste, if we except St. Paul's.

The natural curiosities of England are so various, that we can touch upon them only in general; as there is no end of describing the several medicinal waters and springs which are to be found in every part of the country. They have been analyzed with great accuracy and care by several learned naturalists, who, as their interests or incli-

nations led them, have not been sparing in recommending their salubrious qualities. The most remarkable of these wells have been divided into those for bathing and those for purging. The chief of the former lie in Somersetshire; and the Bath waters are famous through all the world both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the same kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkshire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epsom and Dulwich in Surry, and at Acton and Islington in Middlesex. There are also many remarkable springs, whereof some are impregnated either with salt, as that at Droitwich in Worcestershire; or sulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancashire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropshire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leicestershire; and a dropping well in the west-riding of Yorkshire. And finally, some ebb and flow, as those of the Peak in Derbyshire, and Laywell near Torbay, whose waters rise and fall several times in an hour. To these we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's castle in Herefordshire, commonly called Bone Well, which is generally full of small bones, like those of frogs or fish, though often cleared out. At Ancliff, near Wigan in Lancashire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any smell; yet there is so strong a vapour of sulphur issuing out with the stream, that upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning spirits, which lasts several hours, and emits so fierce a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itself will not burn when taken out of the well.*

Derbyshire is celebrated for many natural curiosities. The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, is said to be continually mouldering away, but never diminishes. The Elden Hole, about four miles from the same place: This is a chasm in the side of a mountain, near seven yards wide and fourteen long, diminishing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the last 80 were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's hole near Buxton, for several paces, is very low, but soon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inside of a Gothick cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much short of what some have asserted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimension; a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its sounding stream reechoed on all sides, very much to the astonishment of all who visit this vast concave. The drops of water which hang from the roof, and on the sides, have an amusing effect; for they not only reflect numberless rays from the candles carried by the guides, but as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in several places into various forms, which, with the help of a strong imagination, may pass for lions, fonts, organs, and the like. The entrance into that natural wonder at Castleton, called Peak's Hole, is wide at first, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who seem in a great measure to subsist by guiding strangers into the cavern,

* This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein of coals, which has since been dug from under this well; at which time the uncommon warmth ceased.

which is crossed by four streams of water, and then is thought impassable. The vault, in several places, makes a noble appearance, and is particularly beautiful by being chequered with various coloured stones.

Some spots of England are said to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that near Whitby in Yorkshire, are found certain stones, resembling the folds and wreaths of a serpent; also other stones of several sizes, and so exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which being broken, do commonly contain the form and likeness of serpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In some parts of Gloucestershire, stones are found, resembling cockles, oysters, and other testaceous marine animals. Those curiosities, however, are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

Cities, Towns, Forts, and other Edifices, publick and private.] These articles are so very extensive, that we can only touch upon objects that may assist in giving the reader some idea of their importance, grandeur or utility.

London,* the metropolis of the British empire, naturally takes the lead in this division. It appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæsar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and soon after became the capital of the island. It was first walled about with hewn stones and British bricks, by Constantine the Great, and the walls formed an oblong square, in compass about three miles, with seven principal gates. The same emperor made it a bishop's see; for it appears that the bishops of London and York, and another English bishop were at the council of Arles, in the year 314: He also settled a mint in it, as is plain from some of his coins.

London in its large sense, including Westminster, Southwark and part of Middlesex, is a city of very surprising extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the most extensive trade. This city, when considered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was, the seat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts send their commodities, from whence they are again sent back into every town, and to every part of the world. Hence arises that circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful and vigorous, and in a prosperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head and the most distant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen; witness their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the shops of tradesmen make such a noble and elegant appearance, or are better stocked.

"This metropolis comprehends, besides London, Westminster and Southwark, no less than 45 villages of considerable extent, inde-

* London is situated in 51° 31′ north latitude, 400 miles south of Edinburgh, and 270 south-east of Dublin; 180 miles west of Amsterdam, 210 north-west of Paris, 500 south-west of Copenhagen, 600 north-west of Vienna, 790 south-west of Stockholm, 800 north-east of Madrid, 820 north-west of Rome, 850 north-east of Lisbon, 1360 north-west of Constantinople, and 1414 south-west of Moscow.

pendent of a vast accession of buildings upon the open fields in the vicinity. Its length is nearly 8 miles, its breadth 3, and its circumference 26: It contains above 8000 streets, lanes, alleys and courts, and more than 65 different squares; its houses, warehouses, and other buildings make 162,000, besides 246 churches and chapels, 207 meeting-houses for Dissenters, 43 chapels for foreigners, and 6 synagogues for the Jews, which in all make 502 places of worship. The number of inhabitants during the sitting of parliament, is estimated at 1,250,000; among these are found about 50,000 common prostitutes, and no less than 60,000 thieves, coiners and other bad people of that description. The annual depredations on the publick, by this numerous body of pilferers, are estimated at the sum of 2,100,000l. sterling. In this vast city there are, moreover, upwards of 4000 seminaries for education; 8 institutions for promoting morality; 10 institutions for promoting the arts; 122 asylums for the indigent; 17 for the sick and lame; 13 dispensaries; 704 charitable institutions; 56 courts of justice; 7040 professional men connected with various departments of the law. There are 13,500 vessels trading to the river Thames in the course of a year, and 40,000 waggons going and returning to the metropolis in the same period, including their repeated voyages.

"The amount of exports and imports to and from the Thames is estimated at 66,811,932l. sterling annually, and the property floating in this great city every year, is 170,000,000l. sterling. These circumstances may be sufficient to convince us of the amazing extent and importance of the captial of the British empire."

[*Police of the metropolis.*]

London is situated on the banks of the Thames, a river which though not the largest, is the richest and most commodious for commerce in the world. It being continually filled with fleets sailing to or from the most distant climates; and its banks extend from London bridge to Blackwall, almost one continued great magazine of naval stores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ships for the use of the merchants, besides the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards lower down the river for the building of men of war. As this city is about sixty miles distant from the sea, it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surprised by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moist vapours of the sea. It rises regularly from the water side, and, extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a great length from east to west in a kind of amphitheatre toward the north, and for near 29 miles on all sides, is a succession of magnificent villas, populous villages, and country seats of gentlemen and tradesmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of fresh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of business. The regard paid by the legislature to the property of the subject has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extension.

The inhabitants, according to a late estimate, consume annually the following articles of provisions:

Black cattle	98,244
Sheep and lambs	711,123
Calves	194,760
Swine	186,932
Pigs	52,000
Poultry and fowl innumerable	
Mackerel sold at Billingsgate	14,140,000
Oysters, bushels	115,536
Small boats with cod, haddock, whiting, &c. over and above those brought by land carriage, and great quantities of river and salt fish	1,398
Butter, pounds weight, about	16,000,000
Cheese, ditto, about	20,000,000
Gallons of milk	7,000,000
Barrels of strong beer	1,172,494
Barrels of small beer	798,495
Tuns of foreign wines	30,044
Gallons of rum, brandy and other distilled waters, above	11,000,000
Pounds weight of candles, above	11,000,000

London bridge consists of 20 arches, and is 900 feet long, 60 high and 74 feet broad. London bridge was first built of timber, about the year 994, by a College of Priests; it was repaired or new built in 1163. The stone bridge was begun by king Henry, in 1176, and finished by king John, in 1209. The architect was Peter of Colechurch, a priest.

Westminster bridge is reckoned one of the most complete and elegant structures of the kind in the European world. It is built entirely of stone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad; which is above 300 feet broader than at London bridge. On each side is a fine balustrade of stone, with places of shelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet, having on each side a fine foot way for passengers. It consists of 14 piers, and 13 large and two small arches, all semicircular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the rest decreasing four feet each from the other; so that the two least arches of the 13 great ones are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000l. in stone and other materials is always under water. This magnificent structure was begun in 1738, and finished in 1750, at the expense of 389,000l. defrayed by the parliament.

Black-friars bridge, situated near the centre of the city, built according to a plan of Mr. Robert Mylne, is a light elegant structure. It has but 9 arches, which are very large, and of an elliptical form. The centre arch is 100 feet wide; the others decrease in regular gradation. It has an open balustrade at the top, and a foot way on each side, with room for three carriages abreast in the middle. It has also recesses on the sides for foot passengers, each supported by two lofty Ionick columns. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770, at the expense of 152,840l. to be discharged by a toll upon the passengers. It is situated almost at an equal distance between those of Westminster and London, commands a view of the Thames from

the latter to Whitehall, and discovers the majesty of St. Paul's in a very striking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is one of the most capacious, magnificent and regular Protestant churches in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the cross on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland stone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a cross, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which in some respects it is superior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of Sir Christopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the same magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to great age, and finished the building 37 years after he himself laid the first stone. It takes up six acres of ground, though the whole length of this church measures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expense of rebuilding it after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million sterling.

Westminster abbey, or the collegiate church of Westminster, is a venerable pile of building, in the Gothick taste. It was first built by Edward the Confessor; king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the east end of it: This is the repository of the deceased British kings and nobility; and here are also monuments erected to the memory of many great and illustrious personages, commanders by sea and land, philosophers, poets, &c. In the reign of Queen Anne 4000l. a year, out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The Banqueting-house at Whitehall is but a very small part of a noble palace, designed by Inigo Jones, for the royal residence, and as it now stands, under all its disadvantages, its symmetry and ornaments are in the highest style and execution of architecture.

Westminster-hall, though on the outside it makes a mean and no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothick building, and is said to be the largest room in the world, whose roof is not supported with pillars, it being 200 feet long, and 70 broad. Its roof is the finest of its kind that can be seen. Here are held the coronation feasts of the kings and queens; also the courts of chancery, king's bench and common pleas, and above stairs, that of the exchequer.

That beautiful column called the monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being destroyed by fire, is justly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Dorick order, exceeds all the obelisks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a stair case in the middle to ascend to the balcony, which is about 30 feet short of the top, from whence there are other steps, made for persons to look out at the top of all, which is fashioned like an urn, with a flame issuing from it. On the base of the monument next the street, the destruction of the city, and the relief given to the sufferers by Charles II. and his brother, is emblematically represented in bas relief. The north and south sides of the base have each a Latin inscription, the one describing its dreadful desolation,* and the

* Which may be thus rendered: "In the year of Christ 1666, Sept. 2, eastward from hence at the distance of 202 feet (the height of this column) a terrible fire broke out about midnight; which driven on by a high wind, not only

other its splendid resurrection ; and on the east side is an inscription, showing when the pillar was begun and finished. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by Sir Christopher Wren, in 1671, and finished by him in 1677, amounted to upwards of 13,000l.

The Royal Exchange is a large noble building, and is said to have cost above 80,000l.

The terrace in the Adelphi is a very fine piece of architecture, and has laid open one of the finest prospects in the world.

We might here give a description of the Tower,* Bank of England, the new Treasury, the Admiralty-Office, and the Horse Guards at

wasted the adjacent parts, but also very remote places with incredible crackling and fury. It consumed 89 churches, the city gates, Guildhall, many publick structures, hospitals, schools, libraries, a vast number of stately edifices, 13,000 dwelling houses, and 400 streets. Of the 26 wards it utterly destroyed 15, and left eight others shattered and half burnt. The ruins of the city were 436 acres, from the Tower by the Thames side to the Temple church ; and from the north-east along the wall by Holburn bridge. To the estates and fortunes of the citizens it was merciless but to their lives very favourable, that it might in all things resemble the last conflagration of the world. The destruction was sudden ; for in a small space of time the city was seen most flourishing, and reduced to nothing. Three days after when this fatal fire had baffled all human counsels and endeavours, in the opinion of all, it stopped, as it were by a command from Heaven, and was on every side extinguished.

* In examining the curiosities of the Tower of London, it will be proper to begin with those on the outside the principal gate ; the first thing a stranger usually goes to visit is the wild beasts, which from their situation, first present themselves : For having entered the outward gate, and passed what is called the spur guard, the keeper's house presents itself before you, which is known by a painted lion on the wall, and another over the door which leads to their dens. By ringing a bell and paying six pence each person, you may easily gain admittance.

The next place worthy of observation is the Mint, which comprehends near one third of the Tower, and contains houses for all the officers belonging to the coinage. On passing the principal gate, you see the White Tower built by William the Conqueror. This is a large, square, irregular stone building, situated almost in the centre, no one side answering to another, nor any of its watch towers, of which there are four at the top, built alike. One of these towers is now converted into an observatory. In the first story are two noble rooms, one of which is a small armoury for the sea-service, it having various sorts of arms, very curiously laid up, for above 10,000 seamen. In the other room are many closets and presses, all filled with warlike engines and instruments of death. Over this are two other floors, one principally filled with arms ; the other with arms and warlike instruments, as spades, shovels, pickaxes, and chevaux de frize. In the other story, are kept match, sheep-skins, tanned hides, &c. and in a little room, called Julius Cæsar's chapel, are deposited some records, containing perhaps the ancient usages and customs of the place. In this building are also preserved the models of the new invented engines of destruction, that have from time to time been presented to the government.—Near the south-west angle of the White Tower, is the Spanish armoury, in which are deposited the spoils of what was vainly called the Invincible Armada ; in order to perpetuate, to latest posterity, the memory of that signal victory obtained by the English, over the whole naval power of Spain, in the reign of Philip II.

You are now come to the grand store-house, a noble building to the northward of the White Tower, that extends 245 feet in length and 60 in breadth. On the left side of the uppermost landing place is the workshop, in which are constantly employed about 14 furbishers, in cleaning, repairing, and new-placing the arms. On entering the armoury, you see what they call a wilderness of arms, so artfully

Whitehall, the Mansion-house of the lord-mayor, the Custom-house, Excise-office, India-house, and a vast number of other publick buildings, besides Montague-house,† in Bloomsbury, with a number of others of the nobility and gentry; but these would be sufficient to fill a large volume.

This great and populous city is happily supplied with abundance of fresh water from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of inconceivable service to every family, but by means of fire-plugs every where dispersed, the keys of which are deposited with the parish officers, the city is in a great measure secured from the spreading of fire; for these plugs are no sooner opened than there are vast quantities of water to supply the engines.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage; it has given rise to several companies, who insure houses and goods from fire. The premium is small, and the recovery, in case of loss, is

disposed, that at one view you behold arms for near 80,000 men, all bright and fit for service; a sight which it is impossible to behold without astonishment; and beside those exposed to view, there were, before the late war, 16 chests shut up, each chest holding about 1,000 muskets. The arms were originally disposed by Mr. Harris, who contrived to place them in this beautiful order, both here and in the guard chamber of Hampton court. He was a common gunsmith; but after he had performed this work, which is the admiration of people of all nations, he was allowed a pension from the crown for his ingenuity.

You now come to the line of kings, which your conductor begins by reversing the order of chronology; so that in following them we must place the last first.

In a dark, strong, stone room, about 20 yards to the eastward of the grand store-house, or new armoury, the crown jewels are deposited.

The record office consists of three rooms, one above another, and a large round room, where the rolls are kept.

† The British Museum is deposited in Montague-house. Sir Hans Sloan, bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the British Museum; for its being established by parliament was only in consequence of his leaving by will his noble collection of natural history, his large library, and his numerous curiosities, which cost him 50,000l. to the use of the publick, on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000l. to his executor. To this collection, were added the Cottonian library, the Harleian manuscripts collected by the Oxford family, and purchased likewise by the parliament, and a collection of books given by the late major Edwards. His late majesty, in consideration of its great usefulness, was graciously pleased to add thereto the royal libraries of books and manuscripts collected by the several kings of England.

The Sloanian collection consists of an amazing number of curiosities; among which are, the library, including books of drawings, manuscripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Medals and coins, ancient and modern, 20,000. Cameos and intaglios, about 700. Seals, 268. Vessels, &c. of agate, jasper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1,125. Precious stones, agates, jaspers, &c. 2,256. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,725. Crystal, spars, &c. 1,864. Fossils, flints, stones, 1,275. Earths, sands, salts, 1,035. Bitumens, sulphurs, ambers, &c 399. Tales, Micæ, &c. 388. Corals, spunges, &c. 1421. Testacea, or shells, &c. 5843. Eschini, echinitae, &c. 659. Asteriæl trochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Crustaceæ, crabs, lobsters, &c. 363. Stellæ marinæ, star fishes, &c. 173. Fish, and their parts, &c. 1,555. Birds, and their parts, eggs and nests, of different species, 1,172. Quadrupeds, &c. 1,886. Vipers, serpents, &c. 521. Insects, &c. 5,439. Vegetables, 12,506. Hortus siccus, or volumes of dried plants, 334. Humani, as calculi, anatomical preparations, 756. Miscellaneous things, natural, 2,098. Mathematical instruments, 55. A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

easy and certain. Every one of these officers keep a set of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their assistance in case of fire, and who are on all occasions extremely bold, dexterous and diligent.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London was inelegant, inconvenient and unhealthy; of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in history, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowness of the streets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and, joined with other circumstances, such as the want of water, rendered the city seldom free from pestilential devastation. The fire which consumed the greatest part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants of that time, was productive of consequences, which made ample amends for the losses sustained by individuals; a new city arose on the ruins of the old; but though more regular, open, convenient and healthful than the former, yet it is ever to be lamented (such was the infatuation of those times) that the magnificent, elegant and useful plan of the great Sir Christopher Wren, was totally disregarded and sacrificed to the mean and selfish views of private property: Views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themselves, and to the nation in general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, what has often been asserted must have been the result; the metropolis of this kingdom would incontestibly have been the most magnificent and elegant city in the world.

In fine, London unites in itself all the benefits arising from navigation and commerce, with those of a metropolis at which all the publick business of a great nation is transacted; and is at the same time the mercantile and political head of the whole empire. It is also the seat of many considerable manufactures. The most important of its peculiar manufactures is the silk weaving, established in Spitalfields by refugees from France. A variety of works in gold, silver and jewelry; the engraving of prints; the making of optical and mathematical instruments are likewise principally or solely executed here, and some of them in a greater perfection than in any other country.

The porter brewery, a business of very great extent, is also chiefly carried on in London. To its port are likewise confined some branches of foreign commerce, as the vast East-India trade, and that to Turkey and Hudson's Bay.

Liverpool in Lancashire is next to London in wealth and population. Its growth has been rapid. In 1760 the inhabitants were computed at 25,787 souls; in 1802 at 60 or 70,000. In one branch of their traffick no good man can wish for their success. In 1792 they employed 132 ships in the slave trade, which carried about 43,000 slaves to the West-Indies

Bristol city, in Somersetshire, situated at the conflux of the river Avon with the small stream of the Froom, at the distance of about 10 miles from the place where the Avon empties into the Severn's mouth, in point of wealth, trade and population was long reckoned second to London, within this kingdom; but much of its commerce with the West-Indies and America has passed to Liverpool. The great trade of Bristol is supported by its extensive inland communica-

tions with the Severn and all its branches, the Avon, the Wye, and various other streams. Hence it enjoys the export and import traffick of a large part of the kingdom, and is enabled to find a market for a great variety of its own manufactures, such as glass ware, hard soap, hats, leather, white lead, gun powder, earthen ware, &c. The refining of sugar, which they import from the West-Indies, is one of the principal manufactures of Bristol. They have 70 or 80 ships constantly employed in the West-India trade. The city is compactly built; but is now extending itself, like other large cities, into its suburbs, by new and more airy streets.

The city of York has always been considered as the capital of the north, and in point of rank, as the second in the kingdom. Its minster or cathedral is one of the most elegant Gothick structures in the kingdom. From its top is seen a vast extent of country. This city has a stone bridge with five arches, over the river Ouse. Though in wealth and populousness, this city falls behind several newer trading towns, it still supports a considerable degree of consequence, and is inhabited by many genteel families. It is in the county of Yorkshire.

Exeter, the capital of Devonshire, is the principal city for size and consequence in the west of England, and the seat of an extensive foreign and domestick commerce. The trade of Exeter consists principally in the exportation of coarse woollen goods manufactured in the counties of Devon, Cornwall and part of Somerset. These are sold as they come from the loom, to the merchants at Exeter, who procure them to be milled, died, and finished, and then export them. These goods consist chiefly of articles little consumed in England, as druggets, duroys, longells and serges. The markets for them are, first, Italy, then Spain, Germany, Holland, Portugal, and lately France. The average annual value exported is reckoned at 609,000l. sterling. Besides which 105,000l. worth of longells are purchased by the East-India company. For making these woollens, about 4000 bags of wool are imported from Kent.

Gloucester, the capital of Gloucestershire, stands on a pleasant hill, and has lately been much improved. Its four principal streets have been much admired for the regularity of their junction in the centre of the town. A pin manufactory affords the principal employment to the inhabitants of this city. It has also several glass-houses. The river Severn washes it on one side, by which it carries on a considerable traffick.

Birmingham is situated in the north-western part of Warwickshire, and is noted for its vast variety of useful and ornamented articles, such as metal buttons, buckles, plated goods of all kinds, jappanned and paper ware, and other hard ware manufactures; in consequence of which it has risen to be superior in populousness to any other of the modern trading towns in England, and has filled the surrounding country with its industrious inhabitants. It is plentifully supplied with coals by means of a canal to Wednesbury in Staffordshire; and it has a communication with the great trunk from the Trent to the Severn, by means of a branch passing by Wolverhampton. The Birmingham goods are dispersed about the kingdom, but chiefly sent to

London, by land carriage. They are exported in great quantities to foreign countries, where, in point of cheapness and show united, they are unrivalled; so that Birmingham has become according to the emphatical expression of a great orator, the *toy shop of Europe*. It has 60,000 inhabitants.

Manchester is celebrated for its cotton manufactory. Its machinery for saving manual labour exhibits surprising ingenuity. It has 70,000 inhabitants.

Poole, in Dorsetshire, is situated on a peninsula, projecting into a capacious bay, branching into many creeks, and forming several islands. The harbour admits vessels of moderate size only, but for them it is very secure. Poole rose to some consequence several centuries ago, when the ancient town of Wareham fell into decay. It now ranks high among the seaports of England, and its trade and population are rapidly increasing. The principal branch of business here is the Newfoundland fishery, to which it sends annually a large number of vessels, which carry out provisions and commodities, and bring back cargoes of fish, caught on the great cod banks, which are carried to Spain, Portugal and Italy. This port has also a large importation of deals from Norway, and a general commerce to America and various parts of Europe. Great quantities of corn are sent from it in coasters, and it imports Newcastle coal for all the eastern part of the country. Near the mouth of Poole harbour lies an oyster bank, upon which are employed, during the season, a number of smacks, which carry away vast quantities of them, to be fattened in the Essex and Thames creek for the London market.

Burton upon the river Trent, at the head of its navigation, in Staffordshire, is noted for the excellence of its malt liquor, great quantities of which are sent down the river to Hull, and thence exported to other parts of the kingdom and abroad. The longest bridge in England is that over the Trent at this place, built by Barnard, Abbot of Burton, in the 12th century. It is all of squared free stone, and 1545 feet long, consisting of 34 arches. This, however, comes far short of the wooden bridge over the Drave, a river of Germany, which, according to Dr. Brown, is 5 miles long.

Dover, in the county of Kent, formerly a place of the greatest importance, and accounted the key of the island, is at present known chiefly as the station of the French and Flemish pacquets, and the shortest passage to the continent. The distance from Dover to Calais is but 27 miles; and in the narrowest part of the straits the two lands are only 21 miles apart. The harbour of Dover is formed by a gap in the cliffs, which are here of sublime height, though somewhat exaggerated in the most picturesque description of Shakespeare. Dover is the principal of those ancient port towns, called *Cinque ports*, formerly of great consequence, now become almost insignificant. The country inland from Dover consists chiefly of open downs, excellent for the feeding of sheep.

Portsmouth has a noble harbour, and here is the grand naval arsenal of England. It has lately been regularly fortified toward the land.

Newcastle stands on the Tyne. It is situated in the midst of those coal mines, which have for centuries supplied London and the south

of England with fuel. The coal fleet amounts sometimes to 500 sail. Their station is at Shields, and the quays of Farrow and Willington. In all parts of the neighbourhood are seen large carts, loaded with coal, proceeding toward the port on inclined planes, without the aid of horses or men, to the great surprise and amusement of strangers.

The city of Bath took its name from some natural hot baths, for the medicinal waters of which this place has long been celebrated, and much frequented. The seasons for drinking the Bath waters are the spring and autumn: The spring season begins with April, and ends with June; the autumn season begins with September, and lasts till December, and some patients remain here all the winter. In the spring this place is most frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleasure, when at least two thirds of the company, consisting chiefly of persons of rank and fortune, come to partake of the amusements of the place. In some seasons there have been no less than 8000 persons at Bath, besides its inhabitants. Some of the buildings lately erected here are very elegant, particularly Queen's Square, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, and the Circus.

No nation in the world can show such dock yards, and all conveniences for the construction and repair of the royal navy at Portsmouth, (the most regular fortification in England) Plymouth, (by far the best dock-yard) Chatham, Woolwich and Deptford. The royal hospital at Greenwich, for superannuated seamen, is scarcely exceeded by any royal palace for its magnificence and expense.

*Wealth, Commerce, Revenue and Navigation of Great-Britain.** The two divisions of Great-Britain, England and Scotland, differ exceedingly with respect to their natural fertility, and to the wealth of their inhabitants. South-Britain, or England, abounds with all the useful productions of the countries in Europe which are situated in the same climate, wine, silk, and some wild animals excepted. The genius and industry of the inhabitants have increased and improved many of the natural productions to a degree, which leaves the efforts of all neighbouring nations at a distance. Agriculture, the art of gardening, the cultivation of those plants which are most useful for feeding cattle as well as breeding horses and sheep, are carried in England to an astonishing height. Of about 42,000,000 acres, which England contains, only 8,500,000 produce corn; the rest is either covered with wood, or laid out in meadows, gardens, parks, &c. and a considerable part is still waste land. Yet out of the crops obtained from the fifth part of the lands, there have been exported, during the space of five years, from 1745 to 1750, quantities of corn to the value of 7,600,000l. sterling. About the year 1766 it was found, that the exportation of corn was carried too far, and proved prejudicial to the country; it was consequently entirely prohibited, and the importation of corn permitted. The net produce of the English corn land is estimated by Mr. Young at 9,000,000l. sterling; the rents of pasture ground, meadows, woods, commons, &c. at 7,000,000l.; the number of people employed and supported by farming is stated by him to amount to 2,800,000 persons. Among the other useful plants, hops, saffron-wood and mad-

* From Zimmerman, Playfair, and others.

der, are become very important articles of commerce. Malt liquor and cider are brought in England to a very high degree of perfection, and render wine a superfluity; yet luxury deems the latter necessary.

The counties of Cheshire, Lancashire, Yorkshire, Leicestershire, Derbyshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Kent, Gloucestershire and Somersetshire, are most distinguished for their excellent cattle. The city of Chester exports annually 22,000 tons of cheese, 14,000 of which are sent to London. One of the greatest sources of the riches of England is wool, the great staple commodity of this country. The stock of the best sort of the present English sheep came over from Spain; Edward IV. had 3000 Spanish sheep brought over, which he ordered to be distributed among the several parishes of England; and ever since that time, great care has been taken to continue and to improve the breed: There are instances that a single ram, of extraordinary beauty and strength, has been sold for 100 guineas. The counties of Herefordshire, Gloucestershire, Somersetshire, Hampshire, Dorsetshire, Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Lincolnshire, Durham, and the east-riding of Yorkshire, are most famous for their large and excellent flocks. At the beginning of the last century, the number of sheep was computed to amount to 12 millions, and there is no doubt but that this number has been greatly increased since that time. In the years 1769, 1770 and 1771, the value of the woollens exported from England amounted to upwards of 10,500,000l. sterling, exclusive of the woollens of Yorkshire, the value of which, in the same period of time, amounted to upwards of 3,000,000l. sterling. The English horses, the breed of which, as before observed, has been much improved by Arabian, Spanish and Barbary horses, are famous all over Europe for their beauty and swiftness. The best race horses run 82½ feet in one second, or nearly one English mile in one minute.

Though neither gold or silver is found in the English mines, or only in quantities too insignificant to be mentioned, yet the other minerals are great sources of wealth. Copper, tin, lead and iron, are found in great abundance, and the two first metals of the very best quality. The copper annually obtained from the mines of Cornwall is estimated at 4,000 tons; the number of Cornish miners is said to amount to 80,000 people. The tin of Cornwall is valued at 200,000l. sterling annually. Northumberland, Durham, Lancashire, Cumberland, Shropshire, Staffordshire, Wales and Devonshire, produce large quantities of iron, which is however, of an inferior quality to the iron of Sweden, Stiria, Carinthia and Russia; it is therefore necessary to import from these countries upwards of 25,000 tons, for the manufactures of finer tools and hard ware. The most important manufactures of the latter sort are at Sheffield, where it is supposed upwards of 40,000 workmen are employed by 600 owners and manufacturers. One company of iron manufacturers in Shropshire use every day 500 tons of coals in their works. In Great-Britain there is made every year 50 or 60,000 tons of pig iron, and 20 or 30,000 tons of bar-iron.

England possesses a very great treasure in its inexhaustible coal mines, which are worked chiefly in the northern countries, whence they are conveyed by sea and by the inland canals to every other

part of the kingdom. The mines of Northumberland send every year upwards of 600,000 chaldron of coals to London, and 1,500 vessels are employed in carrying them to that harbour, along the eastern coast of England. This trade and navigation is one of the great nurseries of seamen, and in that respect, of the utmost importance to the commerce and preservation of the empire.

Manufactures in England have been carried to higher perfection than in any other country. An enumeration of them would comprehend almost every contrivance of mechanism in its most improved state, which ever was invented by the ingenuity of any age or country for the convenience and use of man. Their surprising perfection must be accounted for from many circumstances, which no where coincided so happily to promote their progress as they do in this island. It seems they are nearly equally indebted to the national character, to the situation of the country, and the excellence of its constitution. Nothing could be more favourable to the progress of the mechanical arts, than the English reflection and perseverance; the exclusive attention they are able to bestow on favourite pursuits, often with the neglect of every other concern; and their enterprising spirit, not desponding under the bad success of first trials, animated by the prospect of ample rewards, and by the certainty of enjoying the glory and the fruits of their labours. The insular situation of England taught its inhabitants to consider the surrounding ocean as the bulwark of their safety, the theatre of their power, and the source of their wealth. Navigation with its appendages, distant acquisitions and colonization, gave an astonishing extent to commerce, and an air of grandeur and importance to the occupations of a merchant, which flattered ambition as well as the love of gain. The mere natural productions of the country were insufficient for so large a market; it was deficient in articles of luxury and the precious metals. Manufacturing industry was therefore called forth, in order to supply materials for commerce; and every new invention of mechanical genius found liberal support and encouragement from the great number of people who had acquired wealth. The English government favourable, to every exertion of genius, has provided by wise and equitable laws, for the secure enjoyment of property acquired by ingenuity and labour, and has removed obstacles to industry, by prohibiting the importation of such articles from abroad as could be manufactured at home. Next to the woollen manufactory, that of cotton is the most considerable, as it is reckoned to employ in the northern and middle counties not less than 500,000 persons, women and children included.

Among the advantages of the British islands, with respect to navigation, the following are worthy of attention: The great extent of the coasts, the sea line of which, including both Great-Britain and Ireland, extends near 3,800 miles, whereas the sea coast of France has but 1,000 miles; the neighbourhood to the continent; the number of excellent harbours; and the number of navigable canals which form a communication between the sea ports on the eastern and western coasts of England.

The constant increase of this immense commerce is astonishing. In the years 1783 and 1784, the ships cleared outwards, amounting to 950,000 tons, exceed the number of tons of the ships employed 24 years ago (1760) by upwards of 400,000 tons. The value of the cargoes exported in 1784, amounted to upwards of 15,000,000l. sterling; and the net customs paid for them into the exchequer were upwards of 3,000,000l. sterling; and even this sum was exceeded the next year, 1785, by upwards of 1,000,000l.

The balance of trade in favour of England is estimated by some authors at 3,000,000l. sterling. Far more considerable is the inland trade, valued at upwards of 42,000,000l. sterling. As the quantity of circulating specie may in some measure indicate the extent of commerce, we may judge of the increase of the latter, by comparing the sums which the three last monarchs found necessary to coin. By George I. 8,725,921l. sterling were coined. In the long reign of George II. 11,966,576l. sterling, and in the first 24 years of his presest majesty's reign, the sums coined amounted to 33,089,274l. sterling.

The coasting trade is said to give employment to about 100,000 people: but this number seems to be exaggerated. Yet some branches of the fisheries require a great number of hands. About 10,000 people are employed in the oyster fishery along the coasts of England. On the coasts of Scotland great fisheries are carried on; there have been sometimes upwards of 300 vessels employed in the herring fishery. About 40,000 tons of herrings are annually imported into the port of Yarmouth by 1100 vessels: The whole annual quantity of salt herrings and cured pilchards amounts to 150,000 tons. From Newfoundland there have been carried to foreign markets 591,276 quintals of fish in 1785; this fishery is another great nursery of seamen. The English whale fishery on the coasts of Greenland employs more ships than are sent thither for the same purpose by the Dutch.

By far the most important part of foreign commerce is carried on by privileged trading companies, among which the East-India Company is the most distinguished, by its very brilliant and extraordinary success, and by its influence on the general interests of the whole empire. It dates its origin from the time of queen Elizabeth; its progress was for a long time gradual, and disputed by a rival company, with which it was at length incorporated, and obtained the sanction of parliament for an exclusive trade to the East-Indies and China, for a limited number of years, in consideration of a large sum advanced to the publick. These privileges were afterwards renewed. Within these last thirty or forty years the company has made vast territorial acquisitions in India, which increased in an extraordinary manner the trade, power and importance of this company. Its trade employs 110 ships and about 8,000 men. The articles exported to Asia consist in woollens of all sorts, bullion, hard ware, lead and quicksilver; the imports in gold, diamonds, raw silk, spices, tea, saltpetre, arrack and China porcelain. The revenues of the company are said to amount to upwards of 3,000,000l. sterling annually; but the expense of governing and defending their acquisitions, the wars in which they are

often involved, and the peculations of their servants, have been very great drawbacks upon their profits. The affairs of the East-India Company are under the management of 24 directors, residing in England, and chosen by the court of proprietors of East-India stock. The directors formerly appointed their servants abroad; but the conduct of these servants, and the large dominions acquired by the company covering upwards of 280,000 square miles, and containing 30 millions of inhabitants, rendered an alteration in the constitution of this great commercial body, and the interference of government in its affairs, necessary. An act of parliament, passed in 1773, among other regulations, gave the presidency of Bengal a superiority over the other presidencies in India, vested the right of nominating a governour-general in the crown, and established a court of justice in India. Yet this regulation was found insufficient to answer the intended purposes, and to repress the enormous abuses committed by the company's servants. After the failure of Mr. Fox's plan for the government of the East-India Company in 1783, an act of parliament passed in 1784, which established a board of control in England, to be nominated by the crown, which was calculated to connect the civil and military government in India with that over the whole empire, to superintend the regulations and orders made by the directors of the company, and to call the conduct of its servants to account. Time must show, whether the provisions of Mr. Pitt's bill will be an adequate cure of the evils, which have affected the prosperity and stability of this extraordinary commercial society.

The Levant Company is at present of no great consequence, as the trade to the Levant has been laid open, and the French have acquired a great superiority in the commerce of the Mediterranean.

The South-Sea Company is only nominally a commercial company: It is rather an incorporated society of stockholders, to whom government is indebted. Its affairs are managed by a governour, two sub-governours, and twenty-one directors.

The Hudson's-Bay company carries on an extensive trade in peltry, with very considerable profits.

The Bank of England was incorporated in 1694; this company deals, by the sanction of parliament, in bills of exchange, it buys and sells bullion, and manages government annuities paid at its office. The credit of this company is the most extensive of any company in Europe. It is one of the principal creditors of the nation; and the value of the shares in its stock runs very high. There are, besides, eight insurance companies in England.

State of the Trade of England at different periods with the several Nations of the World. [*Extracted from Playfair's Tables.*]

	IRELAND.		Guern. Jerf. & Al.		GERMANY.	
Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports	Imports.	Exports.
1700	270,000	240,000	30,000	9,000	575,000	995,000
1710	300,000	270,000	25,000	25,000	610,000	895,000
1720	335,000	370,000	20,000	27,000	620,000	1,000,000
1730	340,000	600,000	18,000	45,000	680,000	1,105,000

State of the Trade of England, continued.

Years.	IRELAND. Imports.	Exports.	Guern. Jer. & Al. Imports.	Exports.	GERMANY. Imports.	Exports
1740	475,000	760,000	39,000	50,000	700,000	1,155,000
1750	660,000	950,000	55,000	40,000	715,000	1,405,000
1760	870,000	1,450,000	57,000	50,000	705,000	1,615,000
1770	1,230,000	1,870,000	51,000	46,000	680,000	1,820,000
1780	1,470,000	1,890,000	61,000	64,000	670,000	1,240,000
	Baltick & the East Country.		Denm. & Norw.		SWEDEN.	
1700	136,000	110,000	70,000	35,000	197,000	57,000
1710	130,000	85,000	81,000	59,000	160,000	46,000
1720	188,000	86,000	96,000	76,000	154,000	35,000
1730	198,000	118,000	97,000	65,000	183,000	29,000
1740	230,000	133,000	93,000	67,000	186,000	33,000
1750	250,000	154,000	90,000	79,000	196,000	36,000
1760	210,000	175,000	79,000	115,000	212,000	25,000
1770	220,000	135,000	85,000	163,000	200,000	57,000
1780	280,000	70,000	93,000	185,000	198,000	95,000
	RUSSIA.		GREENLAND.		HOLLAND.	
1700	109,000	135,000	——	——	570,000	2,150,000
1710	140,000	100,000	——	——	510,000	2,100,000
1720	195,000	50,000	200	100	590,000	1,920,000
1730	235,000	45,000	2,000	50	510,000	1,840,000
1740	335,000	75,000	2,800	——	420,000	2,200,000
1750	440,000	85,000	10,000	200	370,000	1,930,000
1760	370,000	98,090	16,000	330	400,000	1,810,000
1770	890,000	133,000	22,000	60	480,000	1,780,000
1780	1,185,000	290,000	38,000	70	490,000	1,570,000
	FLANDERS.		FRANCE.		Portugal & Madeira.	
1700	7,000	80,000	20,000	30,000	250,000	630,000
1710	20,000	150,000	50,000	75,000	275,000	700,000
1720	51,000	245,000	48,000	175,000	350,000	800,000
1730	125,000	270,000	51,000	255,000	365,000	1,070,000
1740	150,000	290,000	57,000	305,000	340,000	1,140,000
1750	70,000	345,000	31,000	285,000	350,000	1,200,000
1760	70,000	420,000	55,000	275,000	300,000	1,110,000
1770	175,000	840,000	80,000	165,000	360,000	680,000
1780	225,000	1,050,000	45,000	155,000	370,000	590,000
	SPAIN and CANARIES.		STRAITS.		Venice and Italy.	
1700	225,000	220,000	2,000	250,000	22,000	15,500
1710	280,000	320,000	25,000	300,000	32,200	17,500
1720	420,000	565,500	70,000	475,000	46,500	18,000
1730	480,000	650,000	135,000	625,000	52,500	14,500
1740	190,000	450,000	40,000	675,000	50,000	14,300
1750	90,000	400,000	80,000	535,000	56,000	18,500
1760	525,000	1,150,000	60,000	425,000	64,000	50,000
1770	510,000	1,040,000	20,000	90,000	71,000	72,500
1780	440,000	860,000	300	85,000	15,500	81,000

State of the Trade of England, continued.

Years.	TURKEY. Imports.	Exports	AFRICA. Imports.	Exports.	EAST-INDIES. Imports.	Exports.
1700	250,000	170,000	14,000	11,000	440,000	140,000
1710	287,000	195,000	18,000	7,000	595,000	95,000
1720	295,000	220,000	30,000	12,000	880,000	120,000
1730	270,000	185,000	50,000	18,000	965,000	145,000
1740	187,000	155,000	32,000	15,000	970,000	360,000
1750	155,000	100,000	27,000	16,000	930,000	700,000
1760	137,000	83,000	43,000	30,000	1,005,000	880,000
1770	126,000	89,000	53,000	48,000	1,515,000	1,330,000
1780	142,000	109,000	73,000	53,000	1,550,000	840,000

Years.	WEST-INDIES. Imports.	Exports.	Spaniſh W. Indies. Imports.	Exports.	BERMUDA. Imports.	Exports.
1700	580,000	305,000	——	——	500	600
1710	750,000	335,000	——	——	600	1,000
1720	1,060,000	435,000	34,000	84,000	1,900	3,000
1730	1,260,000	450,000	37,000	83,000	1,500	2,200
1740	1,290,000	515,000	12,000	11,000	800	1,500
1750	1,460,000	770,000	——	——	1,600	7,200
1760	2,105,000	865,000	13,000	1,000	1,800	10,000
1770	2,995,000	1,190,000	26,000	3,000	1,700	13,000
1780	2,210,000	1,220,000	28,000	7,000	1,700	15,000

Years.	ALL NORTH AMERICA. Imports.	Exports.	U. S. of AMERICA. Imports.	Exports.
1700	280,000	200,000	238,000	240,000
1710	370,000	250,000	310,000	280,000
1720	520,000	350,000	450,000	410,000
1730	630,000	500,000	590,000	540,000
1740	780,000	620,000	700,000	760,000
1750	820,000	930,000	760,000	1,110,000
1760	950,000	1,750,000	940,000	1,610,000
1770	1,480,000	4,500,000	900,000	1,660,000
1780	300,000	1,805,000	540,000	1,050,000

ALL AMERICA.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1770	1,480,000	4,550,000
1771	1,430,000	4,630,000
1772	1,445,000	3,600,000
1773	1,465,000	2,465,000
1774	1,435,000	3,840,000
1775	2,065,000	985,000
1776	245,000	1,190,000
1777	230,000	1,880,000
1778	265,000	1,150,000
1779	295,000	1,370,000
1780	300,000	1,805,000
1781	385,000	1,545,000
1782	295,000	905,000

Total Trade with all the World.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Balance.
1700	4,550,000	6,300,000	1,950,000
1710	4,900,000	7,000,000	2,100,000
1720	5,350,000	8,600,000	3,350,000
1730	7,500,000	10,900,000	3,400,000
1740	7,550,000	12,000,000	4,450,000
1750	7,250,000	12,650,000	5,400,000
1760	10,300,000	14,250,000	3,950,000
1770	11,850,000	16,300,000	4,650,000
1771	12,800,000	17,150,000	4,350,000
1772	13,300,000	16,150,000	2,850,000
1773	11,400,000	14,750,000	3,350,000
1774	13,250,000	15,900,000	2,650,000
1775	13,550,000	15,200,000	1,650,000
1776	11,700,000	13,700,000	2,000,000
1777	11,850,000	12,650,000	800,000
1778	10,250,000	11,550,000	1,300,000
1779	10,650,000	12,650,000	2,000,000
1780	10,750,000	12,550,000	1,800,000
1781	11,900,000	10,550,000	1,350,000
1782	9,500,000	12,350,000	2,850,000
1783	13,225,000	14,741,000	1,516,000
1792	19,629,000	24,878,000	5,249,000
1797	21,450,000	28,325,000	6,875,000

The inland trade of England is valued at 42,000,000l. The coasting trade gives employment to 100,000 people. The oyster fishery gives employment to about 10,000.

Number of British Ships entered inwards to Great-Britain.

	*Ships.	Tonnage.		Ships.	Tonnage.
1772	7,698	757,800	1787	9,969	1,058,000
1773	8,259	796,000	1788	11,121	1,328,000
1774	8,587	820,000	1789	11,907	1,401,000
1775†	9,247	943,000	1790	12,294	1,442,000

Number of British Ships cleared outwards from Great-Britain.

	Ships.	Tonnage.		Ships.	Tonnage.
1772	9,408	923,811	1787	11,662	1,211,199
1773	9,396	874,042	1788	12,936	1,411,689
1774	9,524	808,904	1789	13,648	1,515,021
1775	9,719	888,854	1790	12,762	1,424,912

* The proportion of these ships, in the last peace, belonging to the Provinces (now the United States of America) was very large ; but it is impossible to ascertain the number of them, with any degree of accuracy.

† From this year they continued diminishing till 1782, when there were only 4,652.

Total Value of Imports into Great-Britain.

1772	£14,500,000	1787	£17,804,000
1773	12,675,000	1788	18,027,000
1774	13,346,000	1789	17,821,000
1775	14,816,000	1790	19,130,000

Total Value of Exports from Great-Britain.

	Foreign Manufactures.	British Manufactures.	Total.
1772	£6,746,000	£10,973,000	£17,719,000
1773	7,114,000	9,417,000	16,531,000
1774	6,729,000	10,556,000	17,285,000
1775	6,253,000	10,072,000	16,325,000
1787	£4,815,000	£12,054,000	£16,869,000
1788	4,747,000	12,724,000	17,471,000
1789	5,561,000	13,779,000	19,340,000
1790	5,199,000	14,921,000	20,120,000

The following Abstract shows the comparative situation of Great-Britain, in respect to the particulars mentioned, at the periods annexed.

Price of 3l. per cents Consol. Jan. 27, 1784.	55l.	Price of 3l. per cents Consol. Feb. 10, 1792.	93¾l.
Price of India Stock, Jan. 27, 1784.	121l.	Price of India Stock, Feb. 10, 1792.	197¾l.
Value of Imports, 1783.	13,325,000l.	Value of Imports, 1790.	19,130,000l.
Value of Exports, 1783.		Value of Exports, 1790.	
British Manufactures.	10,400,000l.	British Manufactures.	14,921,000l.
Foreign Produce.	4,332,000l.	Foreign Produce.	5,199,000l.
Total,	14,741,000l.	Total,	20,120,000l.
No. of British Ships entered inwards to G. Britain in 1783.	7,690	No. of British Ships entered inwards to G. Britain in 1790.	12,294
No. of British Ships cleared outwards from G. Britain in 1783.	7,329	No. of British Ships cleared outwards from G. Britain in 1790.	12,762
Amount of the permanent taxes in 1783.	10,194,299l.*	Amount of the permanent taxes in 1791.	14,132,000l.
In 1783 the whole of the Revenue (including the Land and Malt) *below* the Expenditure on a Peace Establishment.	2,000,000l.	In 1791 the whole of the Revenue *above* the Expenditure on the reduced Peace Establishment.	1,900,000l.

* Including a postponed payment of the India Company for duties which were not paid till a subsequent year.

National Debt.] The National Debt of Great-Britain in 1775, previous to the French war, was 72,289,000l. ; the Interest 2,654,000l.

In January 1776, before the American war, it was 123,964,000l. ; ditto 4,411,000l.

In 1786, till which time the whole debt of the last war was not funded, it was 239,154,000l.* ; ditto 9,275,000l.

Since the period last mentioned, the debt of Great-Britain is said to have increased to 500,000,000l. sterling.

No permanent provision had ever been made for the progressive and certain reduction of this immense debt, until 1786, when parliament had the wisdom and the firmness to pass an act for vesting unalienably in commissioners, the sum of one million annually ; in which act every possible precaution was taken that could be devised for preventing the surplus from being diverted at any future time, and for carrying to the account of the commissioners for the purpose of the act, the interest of such stock as should be purchased, and such temporary annuities as should fall in. Under the provisions of this act, *Eight Millions Two Hundred Thousand Pounds* of the capital of the debt has been purchased ;† and the amount of the annual sum, now applicable for the reduction of it, is 1,360,000l.

Revenue.] In 1786, it appears from a Report of the Select Revenue Committee, that the amount of revenue was 15,397,471l. The expenditure for the same year was as follows :

Interest and Charges of the Publick Debts	£9,275,769
Exchequer Bills	258,000
Civil List	900,000
Charges on the aggregate Fund	64,600
Navy	1,800,000
Army	1,600,000
Ordnance	348,000
Militia	91,000
Miscellaneous Services	74,274
Appropriated Duties	66,538
	£14,478,181
Surplus for this year	919,290

What has been the total improvement of the Revenue from the year 1783 to the year 1792, will appear from the following statement.

* Exclusive of a capital of 1,991,000l. granted by parliament to loyalists, as a compensation for loss of property in America.

† And loyalists' debentures have been satisfied to the amount of 686,000l. which may be considered as a further reduction of the debt to that amount.

PRODUCE OF ALL THE PERMANENT TAXES.

From 5th January 1783	to 5th January 1784	£10,194,259
1784	to 1785	10,856,996
1785	to 1786	12,104,798
1786	to 1787	11,867,055
1787	to 1788	12,923,134
1788	to 1789	13,007,642
1789	to 1790	13,433,068
1790	to 1791	14,072,978
1791	to 1792	14,132,000

From the above it appears, that the revenue has almost gradually risen, in the course of the last nine years, from 10,194,259l. to 14,132,000l.

Canals.] The duke of Bridgwater is venerated as the founder of inland navigation in England. The first canal extends from Worsley mill, seven miles from Manchester, and reaches the town by a course of nine miles. It passes over rivers and through hills. Part of the way through the hill is solid rock, and a part is arched with brick, with air funnels to the top of the hill 37 yards perpendicular. Soon after, the duke extended a canal from Longford in Lancashire to Hempstones in Cheshire, 29 miles.

The Lancaster canal extends from Kendal to West-Houghton, 74 miles. The canal from Leeds to Liverpool is 117 miles long. From Halifax to Manchester is a canal 31½ miles long. Another extends from Grantham to the river Trent, 30 miles. A canal unites the Trent and Mersey, 99 miles. It passes over the river Drave in an aqueduct supported by 23 arches. The subterraneous passage through the hill of Harecastle is 2880 yards, and more than 200 feet below the surface of the ground. Various branch canals proceed from this. One proceeds to the Severn, connecting the three great ports, Bristol, Liverpool and Hull; the length is 46 miles. The Severn is united with the Trent and Humber, also with the Thames, by a canal about 40 miles in length. Many other canals give wealth to the enterprising people of England. The whole cost about 5,500,000l. sterling. [*Pinkerton.*]

Government.] The government of Great-Britain may be called a limited monarchy. It is a combination of a monarchical and popular government. The king has, or at least is understood to have, only the executive power; the legislative is shared by him and the parliament, or, more properly speaking, by the people. Notwithstanding the limitations of regal power provided by the constitution, the prerogative of the king is still very great. In consequence of possessing the executive power of the state, he appoints his privy council and his ministers, by whom the national business is to be carried on; he has the right of calling together and dissolving the parliament; he can withhold his assent from any bill which hass passed both houses, and by that means prevent it from passing into a law; his person is sacred and inviolable; he cannot, in the eye of the law, do wrong; but the blame of his measures falls always on his minis-

ters and advisers. He nominates all the great officers of the state and church; he confers honours, dignities and titles, especially that of the peerage; he pardons criminals; he is the supreme commander of the army and navy, and the head of the church. His income is very ample, amounting annually to 900,000l. sterling.

The crown is hereditary; both male and female descendants are capable of succession. By a fundamental law, the king must profess the Protestant religion.

The legislative power belongs to the king and parliament, or the great senate of the nation. This parliament is composed of the peers and commons, and divided into two assemblies, called the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The House of Lords is composed, 1. Of the temporal peers, or the hereditary nobility of the kingdom of England, distinguished by the different ranks of dukes, marquisses, earls, viscounts and barons; who have, by birthright or creation, a seat in the House of Lords, and are hereditary counsellors of the king. 2. Of the spiritual lords, or the two archbishops and 24 bishops of England, who have seats in the house by virtue of their dignities. 3. Of 16 Scotch peers, the representatives of the peerage of Scotland. The House of Commons is composed of such persons of fortune and interest as are chosen representatives for the several counties, cities and boroughs of the kingdom. The number of these representatives is 558, chosen in the following manner:

For the 40 counties of England, two members for each	80
For the 12 counties of Wales, one for each	12
For the counties of Scotland	30
For the cities of England	50
For the boroughs in England	339
For the two universities	4
For the cinque ports	16
For the boroughs of Wales	12
For the boroughs of Scotland	15
	558

This plan of representation, founded on the ancient state of the kingdom, is at present liable to many objections. Among the places which are represented in parliament, there are many which were formerly flourishing, but which are at present sunk into insignificance; and many towns, now opulent and populous, which at that time were not risen into consequence, have not yet acquired the right of sending representatives. Several boroughs are become private property; in others the number of electors is very small, and of course easily influenced by powerful individuals; so that upon the whole the representation is very unequal and defective:* But its present state is so

* In the borough of Taunton, the election of members of parliament is very peculiar. Every person who dresses his own victuals is entitled to a vote. Accordingly, lodgers, &c. who wish to vote, kindle a fire in the street, previous to

nearly connected with the rights of private property and the interest of the great families, that it is a very difficult matter to render it equal and independent. The duration of parliaments is at present extended to seven years, after the expiration of which a new general election of representatives takes place. Many of those who are zealous for the rights of the people, wish to shorten the septennial parliaments, because experience teaches that they give too much influence to the crown over the members, and diminish that of the constituents over their representatives. To be chosen a representative, certain qualifications are necessary, as the possession of landed property of the annual value of 300l. if it be for a borough, and of 500l. a year if it be for a county. By a wise regulation, no foreigner, though naturalized, can be chosen a member of the House of Commons. In the House of Lords the lord chancellor presides; in the House of Commons an elective president, called the Speaker. Any member of either house has the right of bringing in a bill; which, before it can pass into an act of parliament, and obtain the force of law, must be agreed to by a majority of both houses, and afterwards receive the assent of the king. Bills relating to taxation, revenue, and its administration, originate always in the House of Commons, who, by the invaluable privilege of granting or refusing supplies, have the power of promoting or stopping any measure of government: The Commons have likewise the privilege, that none of their money bills can be altered or amended by the Lords. The upper house of parliament have the supreme judicial authority in the state, to which appeals may be made from the decision of the courts of Westminster. The power of parliament is the highest in the state, and is unlimited; it has even altered more than once the established religion, and the order of succession to the crown.

In consequence of the mixed character of the English constitution, there have been since the time of the Stuarts, two parties in the nation, of opposite political principles; one of which favours the power of the crown, and the other the democratical or aristocratical power in the constitution. They were originally distinguished by the names of Cavaliers and Roundheads; afterwards they were called Tories and Whigs; and at present the Court Party and the Opposition. The mutual jealousy of these parties, when founded in principle, is beneficial to the constitution; but their dissensions must often be attributed to private views, disappointed ambition, and struggle for power: Yet, notwithstanding the divisions of party, the influence which the king has over the parliament, by his constitutional prerogative, and the numerous favours and rewards he has in his power to bestow, is exceedingly great.

Besides the parliament, the king has the assistance of his ministers, or privy counsellors, nominated by himself, and responsible for their advice and conduct. Among these privy counsellors are the great

the election, and publickly boil their victuals, that their right may not be questioned.

Old Sarum sends two members to parliament; and yet a farm-house is the only building in the borough. [*Editor.*]

officers of the state, who hold their places during the king's pleasure, and who retain the dignity of privy counsellors, though removed from their offices. The offices of Lord Chamberlain and Earl Marshal are hereditary to the ducal families of Ancaster and Norfolk. Among the privy counsellors, those ministers who compose the cabinet are the principal; the Lord Chancellor, the first Lord of the Treasury, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who, when he is at the same time first Lord of the Treasury, is considered as the first minister, the two Secretaries of State for the northern and southern departments, the Lord President of the Council, and Lord Privy Seal, to which must be added, the first Lord of the Admiralty: These ministers are presidents of the principal state departments. Scotland has its own officers of state and courts of justice.

The administration of justice in England is, as it may be expected, in a constitution so favourable to liberty, famous for its fairness, independence and impartiality. The laws of England have been least of any influenced by the Roman laws, the admission of which the nation has firmly opposed. They are divided into the unwritten, or common law, and the statute law: The first is not founded on any known act of the legislature, but transmitted down by tradition. Its principles are collected from the judgments which have passed according to it, from time immemorial, and which are carefully preserved under the name of records. Its legal force is, probably, founded on acts of parliament, prior to the reign of Richard I. the originals of which are now lost. The written, or statute law is the collection of acts of parliament, the originals of which have been preserved, especially since the time of Edward III. The chief courts of common law are, 1. the Court of King's Bench, 2. the Court of Common Pleas, and 3. the Court of Exchequer. Each of these courts has four judges, who cannot be deprived of their places but on an accusation by parliament. To obtain legal remedy in cases to which the jurisdiction of the common law courts did not extend, the courts of equity have been added, viz. the Court of Chancery, under the Lord High Chancellor, and the Court of Exchequer Chamber. In important and difficult causes, the twelve judges, joined sometimes by the Lord Chancellor, meet to deliberate on the judgments passed in the courts. There are, besides, many provincial and subordinate courts, the ecclesiastical courts, the courts martial, and admiralty court; into the three latter, the principles and proceedings of the Roman law have been admitted. From all courts of justice appeals can be made to the House of Lords, the highest judicial tribunal in the kingdom.

It is chiefly in the criminal judicature that the laws of England differ so greatly and so honourably from those of other countries. When a person is charged with a crime, he is first examined by a magistrate, who may discharge him if the accusation should be evidently futile or false; but if it appears to have sufficient weight, he binds the party to give bail for his appearance to answer to the charge; and in capital cases, he commits him to prison. Before the party is brought to a trial, the accusation undergoes a second discussion by the grand jury of the county, consisting of more than 12,

and less than 24, persons of character and respectability; if twelve or more of them are of opinion that the charge is well grounded, the prisoner is indicted. He is then brought to the bar of the court to take his trial, in a publick manner, before the judge and petit jury. The latter is composed of twelve impartial persons of the same rank with the prisoner, any of whom, as far as twenty persons successively, the prisoner may challenge if he has any objection to be tried by them; and this jury are finally to judge the prisoner, according to the evidence produced in the trial. When the jury have taken their oaths, the indictment is read to the prisoner, who pleads either guilty, or not guilty, to it. In the first case no trial is necessary; in the other the evidence of the witnesses, who are on their oath, is produced in presence of the prisoner, who is allowed to question them himself, or by his council, and to bring witnesses in his defence. When the evidence is before the court, the judge, in a speech sums it up, points out the precise state of the question, and gives his opinion concerning the evidence and the point of law. By this opinion the jury are no farther bound than as it coincides with their own; and they agree among themselves on the decision or verdict which they are to give, and which must be unanimous; it is either that the prisoner is guilty, or not guilty, of the fact of which he stands accused: If they acquit him, he is immediately discharged from prison; if he is found guilty, the judge pronounces the sentence of the law incurred by the crime, and the prisoner is sent back to prison till the sentence is put in execution. If any extenuating circumstances appear in the trial, the jury may recommend the convict to mercy: and the king has the power either to grant him a free pardon or to mitigate the rigour of his punishment.

Such are the proceedings of criminal justice in England, which manifest the greatest attention to the liberty and life of the subject, which remove every fear of oppression from the poorest and weakest, and which give innocence the fairest chance of vindicating itself from unjust and malicious accusation. But the laws of England, as well as those of almost every community in the world, are still too sanguinary. The frequency of capital punishments for a variety of crimes lessens the impressions of terror. Laws ought to be mild, but their execution certain. Their severity has a powerful tendency to prevent their execution; pity is excited for the criminal. He is pardoned, or perhaps the law is evaded in his trial, or possibly he is never prosecuted. If exile were the punishment for all crimes now considered capital, wilful murder excepted, it would probably improve human society.

The laws of Scotland are different from those of England; and they partake much more of the principles and forms of the civil law. The trial by jury in Scotland, may, perhaps, be considered as an improvement on that mode of trial: It differs from that in England, by requiring only a majority of two thirds, not a unanimity of the jury, in order to give a decisive verdict.

The government of Ireland resembles, in every respect, that of Great-Britain, with which it has lately become connected, after the manner of Scotland. Till this union took place, Ireland had its own

parliament, framed on the same plan with the British; its officers of state, courts of justice, &c. but was protected by the British army and navy.

Military Strength.] In time of peace the army consists of about 40,000 men, including troops and garrisons in Ireland, Gibralter, the East-Indies and America. But in time of war there have been formerly in British pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000 men. In 1800 the effective rank and file were 168,082.

In time of peace, most regiments consist of only one battalion, composed of ten companies; in time of war additional companies are raised and the number of regiments increased. The whole of the army during the American war, including the foreign troops in English pay, amounted to about 135,000 men. Twelve regiments of cavalry and 20 of infantry are usually in Ireland, and are maintained by that kingdom, amounting to about 12,000 or 14,000 men: For the service of Great-Britain, the garrisons, and colonies, about 17,000 men are voted annually by parliament, exclusive of marines. The militia consists of about 40,000 men.

Navy.] The number of ships in and out of commission, building, &c. in 1787, were as follows, viz.

Ships of the line	157
Fifties	19
Frigates	143
Sloops	128
Total	447

Ships actually in commission, in 1786, as guard ships in the principal ports, and on the several stations, the Channel, North Seas, West-Indies, America, East-Indies, Africa, and the Mediterranean, fitting out, &c.

Ships of the line	12
Frigates	27
Sloops	69

The usual complement in time of peace, voted by parliament, 18,000 seamen, including about 3,500 marines.

The principal ports of the navy are Portsmouth, Plymouth and Chatham, where there are excellent dock yards.

In times of war, as in 1782, the ships fit for actual service were, according to the Admiralty List,

Ships of the line	114
Fifties	11
Frigates	111
Sloops	42
Guard Ships	24
Total	302

The whole of the fleet carried upwards of 20,000 guns, and was manned by 116,546 seamen.

The Royal Navy of Great-Britain, as it stood at August 31, 1784.

Rates of Ships.	Guns.	Complement of Men. No. of each Rate.	Men.	Weight of Metal. Metals.
1st.	100 and upwards	5	875 to 850	42 24 12 6
2d.	98 to 90	20	750 to 700	32 18 12 6
3d.	80 to 64	130	650 to 500	32 18 9 6
4th.	60 to 50	27	420 to 380	24 12 6&18 9
5th.	44 to 32	102	300 to 220	18 9 6&12 6
6th.	30 to 20	50	200 to 160	9 4
		334		
Sloops,	18 to 14	143	125 to 110	
Bombs, Fire ships, &c.		19		
	Total	496		

In commission 25 of the line, 7 fifties, 36 frigates, and 105 sloops. When a ship of war becomes old, or unfit for service, the same name is transferred to another, which is built, as it is called, upon her bottom. While a single beam of the old ship remains, the name cannot be changed unless by act of parliament.

The pay of the Officers of the Royal Navy in each Rate. FLAG OFFICERS, and the CAPTAINS to Flags.

	Per Day.
Admirals and Commanders in Chief of the Fleet	£5 0 0
An Admiral	3 10 0
Vice Admiral	2 10 0
Rear Admiral	1 15 0
First Captain to the Commander in Chief	1 15 0
Second do. and Captain to other Admirals	1 0 0
——— to V. Admirals } if first or second Rates, to }	0 16 0
——— to R. Admirals } have the pay of such Rates }	0 13 6

History.] For this interesting article, the reader is referred to Hume, Goldsmith, Macauley, or some other professed historian. I shall here only set down a chronology of English kings, from the time that this country became united under one monarch, in the person of Egbert, who subdued the other princes of the Saxton heptarchy, and gave the name of Angle-land to this part of the island; the Saxons and Angles having about four centuries before invaded and subdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

Began to reign.		
800	Egbert	Saxon Princes.
838	Ethelwolf	
857	Ethelbald	
860	Ethelbert	
866	Ethelred	
871	Alfred the Great	
901	Edward the Elder	
925	Athelstan	
941	Edmund	
946	Edred	
955	Edwy	
959	Edgar	
975	Edward the Martyr	
978	Ethelred II.	
1016	Edmund II. or Ironside	
1017	Canute, King of Denmark	Danish.
1035	Harold	
1039	Hardicanute	
1041	Edward the Confessor	Saxon.
1065	Harold	
1066	William I.	(Commonly called the conqueror) duke of Normandy, a province facing the south of England, now annexed to the French monarchy.
1087	William II.	Sons of the Conqueror.
1100	Henry I.	
1135	Stephen, grandson to the Conqueror, by his 4th daughter Adela.	
1154	Henry II.	(Platagenet) grandson of Henry I. by his daughter, the empress Matilda, and her 2d husband, Geoffrey Platagenet.
1189	Richard I.	Sons of Henry II.
1199	John	
1216	Henry III. son of John.	
1272	Edward I. son of Henry III.	
1307	Edward II. son of Edward I.	
1327	Edward III. son of Edward II.	
1377	Richard II.	grandson of Edward III. by his eldest son, the Black Prince.
1399	Henry IV.	Son to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, 4th son to Edward III. — House of Lancaster.
1413	Henry V. son of Henry IV.	
1422	Henry VI. son of Henry V.	
1461	Edward IV.	descended from Edward III. by Lionel his 3d son. — House of York.
1483	Edward V. son of Edward IV.	
1483	Richard III. brother of Edward IV.	

1485 Henry VII. (Tudor) son of the countess of Richmond, of the House of Lancaster.
1509 Henry VIII. son of Henry VII.
1547 Edward VI. son of Henry VIII.
1553 Mary
1558 Elizabeth } Daughters of Henry VIII.

} House of Tudor, in whom were united the houses of Lancaster and York, by Henry VII's marriage with Elizabeth, daugh. of Edward IV.

1603 James I. Great grandson of James IV. king of Scotland, by Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and first of the Stuart family in England.

1625 Charles I. son of James I.

Commonwealth and protectorate of Cromwell.

1649 Charles II.
1685 James II. } Sons of Charles I.

1688 William III. nephew and son-in-law of James II.
and Mary } Daughters of James II. in whom ended the
1702 Anne } Protestant line of Charles I. for James II. upon his abdicating the throne, carried with him his infant son, (the late Pretender) who was excluded by act of parliament, which settled the succession in the next Protestant heirs of James I. The surviving issue of James, at the time of his death, were a son and a daughter, viz. Charles, who succeeded him, and the princess Elizabeth, who married the Elector Palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left a daughter, the princess Sophia, who married the duke of Brunswick Lunenburgh, by whom she had George, elector of Hanover, who ascended the throne, by act of parliament, expressly made in favour of his mother.

1714 George I.
1727 George II. son of George I.
1760 George III. grandson of George II. } House of Hanover.

WALES.

THE principality of Wales, long an independent and separate country from England, and still entirely differing from it in language, and, in some respects, in manners and customs, is strongly marked out by nature as a detached district, characterized by an almost continued range of mountains and vallies. It occupies all the central part of the western coast, and the country inland to a moderate distance; having its northern and southern limits well defined by the projecting line of coast from the Dee to Anglesea on the one hand,

and the wide entrance of the Bristol channel on the other. The ancient internal dimensions of Wales have been contracted, by taking from it the whole county of Monmouth, and a part of the several adjacent English counties. At present it consists of 12 middle sized counties ;* six of which are reckoned to belong to North, and six to South-Wales. In general population and fertility, the latter division has the superiority. All the Welsh counties, except three, touch the sea coast in some part of their boundary.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		
Length 130	between	51° and 54° North latitude.
Breadth 96		2° 41′ and 4° 56′ West longitude.

Area in square miles 7011.

Name and Language.] The Welsh, according to the best antiquaries, are descendants of the Belgick Gauls, who made a settlement in England about fourscore years before the first descent of Julius Cæsar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Walles (the G and W being promiscuously used by the ancient Britons) that is, *Strangers*. Their language has a strong affinity with the Celtick or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetick and descriptive powers by those who understand it. [For DIVISIONS, see *England.*]

Climate, Soil and Water.] The seasons are pretty much the same as in the northern parts of England, and the air is sharp, but wholesome. The soil of Wales, especially towards the north, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye and corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-stone and slate, several mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well supplied with wholesome springs; and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy and the Allen; which, near Mold, sinks under ground, and is lost for a short space. These rivers furnish Flintshire with great quantities of fish.

Mountains.] It would be endless to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Caernarvonshire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganshire, are the most famous; and their mountainous situation greatly assisted the natives in making so noble and long a struggle against the Roman, Anglo-Saxon and Norman powers.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners and Customs.] The inhabitants of Wales are supposed to amount to 541,546, and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the necessaries, and many of the conveniences of life. The Welsh are, if possible, more jealous of their liberties than the English; and are remarkable for their sincerity and fidelity. The Welsh may be called an unmixed people, as may be proved by their keeping up the ancient hospitality, and their strict adherence to ancient customs and manners. This appears among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the stream of fashion. We are not, however, to imagine, that many of the no-

* For their names, see ENGLAND.

bility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better sort of the Welsh speak the English language, though numbers of them understand the Welsh.

Religion.] The Welsh clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welsh and English. Their poverty was formerly a vast discouragement to religion and learning: but the measures taken by the society for propagating christian knowledge, have, in a great degree, removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer sort of the Welsh. In the year 1749, a hundred and forty-two schoolmasters were employed, to remove from place to place for the instruction of the inhabitants; and their scholars amounted to 72,264. No people have distinguished themselves more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welsh have done by acts of national munificence. They print, at a vast expense, bibles, common prayers, and other religious books, and distribute them gratis to the poorer sort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free school. The established religion is that of England.

Learning and learned Men.] Wales was a seat of learning at a very early period; but it suffered an eclipse by the repeated massacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffism took shelter in Wales, when it was persecuted in England. The Welsh and Scotch dispute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrensis, whose history was published by Camden, was certainly a Welshman; and Leland mentions several learned men of the same country, who flourished before the reformation.

With regard to the present state of literature among the Welsh, it is sufficient to say, that some of them make a considerable figure in the republick of letters, and that many of their clergy are excellent scholars.

Cities, Towns, Forts, and other Edifices, publick and private.] Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable either for populousness or magnificence. Beaumaris, a neat well built place, is the the chief town of Anglesey,* and has a harbour for ships, and a castle founded by Edward I. It has no trade. Brecknock has a trade

* The isle of Anglesey, which is the most western county of North-Wales, is surrounded on all sides by the Irish sea, except on the south-east, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow strait, called the Menai, which in some places may be passed on foot at low water; the island is of a rhomboidal shape, and from point to point the length is about 22 miles, and the breadth 20. It contains 74 parishes. The part of the island bordering the Menai is finely wooded, recalling to the mind its ancient state, when it was the celebrated seat of the Druids, the terrifick rites of whose religion were performed in the gloom of the thickest groves. Rude mounds and heaps of stones, supposed to be Druidical remains, are yet to be seen here. A little way within, however, the whole country changes its aspect into a naked tract, without trees or even hedges, rising in small hills, watered by numerous rills, and fertile in grass and corn. The products of Anglesey are corn and cattle. In favourable seasons large quantities of barley and oats are exported by sea, and several thousand head of cattle, besides multitudes of sheep and hogs, annually cross the ferry of Menai to the main land. Its fertility is of ancient reputation, for it had long ago acquired the title of *the nursing mother of Wales.*

in the woollen branches. It is moderately large, well built, and inhabited by several families of gentry. Cardigan is a large populous town, lying in the neighbourhood of lead and silver mines, on the mouth of the river Towy. Caermarthen has a large bridge, is well built and populous, and is reckoned the first town in South-Wales. Its river, the Towy, admits of vessels of moderate burden, which gives it a considerable trade. Pembroke, situated on a creek which communicates with Milford Haven, is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradesmen, but on the decline, the navigation to it being injured by the rubbish of the lime-stone quarries near it. A part of the country is so fertile and pleasant, that it is called Little England.

Antiquities and Curiosities, natural and artificial.] Wales abounds in remains of antiquity; but the remains of the Druidical institutions and places of worship are chiefly discernible in the isle of Anglesey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who describes it as being the chief seminary of the Druidical rites and religion.

Among the natural curiosities of this country are the following: In Flintshire is a famous well, known by the name of St. Winifred's well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The spring boils with vast impetuosity out of a rock at the foot of a high hill, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch supported by pillars, and the roof is most exquisitely carved in stone. Over the spring is also a chapel, a neat piece of Gothick architecture, but in a very ruinous state. This spring is supposed to be one of the finest in the British dominions, and is now applied to the purpose of turning several mills, for the working of copper, making brass wire, paper and snuff, and spinning cotton; which branches give great employment to the town and neighbourhood, and by two different trials and calculations lately made, is found to fling out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, or scarcely varies in the quantity of water in droughts, or after the greatest rains. After a violent fall of rain, it becomes discoloured by a wheyish tinge. The small town adjoining to the well, is known by the name of Holywell. In Caernarvonshire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, across the edge of which the publick road lies, and occasions no small terror to many travellers; from one hand the impending rock seems ready every minute to crush them to pieces, and the great precipice below, which hangs over the sea, is so hideous, and, till very lately, when a wall was raised on the side of the road, was so dangerous, that one false step was of dismal consequence. Snowdon hill is by triangular measurement 1,240 yards perpendicular height.

But the wealth and population of Anglesey have lately received a great increase from the discovery of the famous copper mine on *Pary's mountain*, the largest bed of ore of that metal probably known in the world. It is wrought, not in the common manner of subterraneous mines, but like a stone quarry, open to the day; and the quantities of ore raised are prodigious. The ore is poor in quality, and very abundant in sulphurs: Quantities of nearly pure copper are obtained from the waters lodged beneath the bed of ore, by the intervention of iron. A lead ore rich in silver is also found in the same mountain. In the north-west part of the island is a quarry of green marble, intermixed with the curious substance asbestos.

There are a great number of pleasing prospects and picturesque views in Wales; and this country is highly worthy the attention of the curious traveller.

Commerce and Manufactures.] The Welsh are on a footing, as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the western and northern counties of England. Their trade is mostly inland, or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milford Haven, which is reckoned the finest in Europe, lies in Pembrokeshire; but the Welsh have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late considerable sums have been granted by parliament for its fortification. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ships, and its inhabitants carry on an extensive trade. In Brecknockshire are several woollen manufactures; and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England and Ireland.

Constitution and Government.] Wales was united and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the English form; all laws, customs and tenures, contrary to those of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to participation of all the English liberties and privileges, particularly that of sending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every shire, and a burgess for every shire-town, except Merioneth.

Revenue.] As to the revenues, the crown has a small property in the product of the silver and lead mines; but it is said that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8,000l. a year. The land tax of Wales brought in several years ago about 43,700l. a year.

History.] The ancient history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petit princes who governed it. That they were sovereign and independent, appears from the English history. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of Britons; the Silures, the Dimetæ and the Ordovices. These people appear never to have been entirely subdued by the Romans; though part of their country from the ruins of castles, was bridled by garrisons. The Saxons conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, but never penetrated farther, and the Welsh remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderick, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three sons: and the names of these dominions were Demetia, or South-Wales; Povesia, or Powis-land; and Venedotia, or North-Wales. This division gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to serve as a barrier to England, none of the Welsh princes being powerful enough to oppose them. They made however many vigorous and brave attempts against the Norman kings of England to maintain their liberties; and even the English historians admit the injustice of their claims. In 1237, the crown of England was first supplied with a handle for the future conquest of Wales; their old and infirm prince, Llewellin, in order to be safe from the persecutions of his undutiful son, Griffyn, having put himself under subjection and homage to king Henry III.

But no capitulation could satisfy the ambition of Edward I. who resolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellin, prince of Wales, disdaining the subjection to which old Llewellin had submitted, Edward raised an irresistible army at a prodigious expense, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking possession of the isle of Anglesey, he drove the Welsh to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to submit to pay a tribute. The Welsh, however, made several efforts under young Llewellin; but, at last, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was succeeded by his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him most barbarously and unjustly hanged; and Edward from that time pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman massacre of the Welsh bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not sufficient to complete his conquest, he sent his queen in the year 1282, to be delivered in Caernarvon castle, that the Welsh, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognize his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always since descended to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England, from this period, becomes the same. It is proper, however, to observe, that the kings of England have always found it their interest to soothe the Welsh with particular marks of their regard. Their eldest sons not only held the titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a president, was named by the crown, for the administration of all the affairs of the principality. This was thought so necessary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no son, his daughter Mary was created princess of Wales.

SCOTLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		
Length	300*	between	54° and 59° North latitude.
Breadth	190		1° and 6° West longitude.

27,793 square miles, having 57 inhabitants for each.

Name.] THE word Scot is no other than a corruption of Scuyth, or Scythia, by the ancients. It is termed by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Escotia; by the French, Ecosse; and by the Scots, German and English, Scotland.

Boundaries.] Scotland, which contains an area of 27,794 square miles, is bounded on the south by England; and on the north, east, and west, by the Deucaledonian, German and Irish seas, or, more properly, the Atlantick Ocean.

Divisions and Subdivisions.] See ENGLAND.

Climate, Soil, Air and Water.] In the northern parts, day light, at midsummer, lasts eighteen hours and five minutes. The air of

* According to Pinkerton, the length is 361 miles, breadth 160.

Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in so northerly a climate. This arises partly from the variety of its hills, vallies, rivers and lakes; but still more as in England, from the vicinity of the sea, which affords those warm breezes, that not only soften the natural keenness of the air, but by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent those epidemick distempers that prevail in many other countries. The western parts are often so deluged with rain as to prevent the success of agriculture. In the neighbourhood of some high mountains, however, which are generally covered with snow, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. The soil in general is not so fertile as that of England; and in many places less fitted for agriculture than for pasture. At the same time, there are particular plains and vallies of the most luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, incessantly washed down from the mountains, and deposited in these vallies, afford them a vegetative nourishment, which is capable of carrying the strongest plants to perfection; though experience has proved, that many vegetables and hortulane productions do not come so soon to maturity in this country as in England. There is, indeed, a great variety of soils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diversified by a charming intermixture of natural objects. The vast inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the husbandman, are particularly pleasing to a traveller, and afford those delightful situations for country houses, of which many of the Scottish nobility and gentry have so judiciously availed themselves. It is their situation, more than any expensive magnificence, that occasions the seats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of lord Hopton, and many others, to fix the attention of every traveller. The water in Scotland, as every where else, depends on the qualities of the soil through which it passes. Water passing through a heavy soil is turbid and noxious; but filtrating through sand or gravel, it is clear, light, and salutary to the stomach. This last is in general the case in Scotland, where the water is better than that of more southern climates, in proportion as the land is worse.

Mountains.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian hills, which run from east to west, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleshire, almost the whole breadth of the kingdom. To the Grampian chain belong Ben Lomond, 3262 feet high, Ben Ledy, 3009, Ben More, 3903, Ben Lawres, 4015, Shihallion, 3564, Ben Varlish, 3300.

Ben Nevis is the highest mountain in Great-Britain, 4350 feet above the level of the sea. To the east 30 miles is Cairngorm, 4060 feet high. [*Pinkerton.*] Another chain of mountains, called the Petland hills, runs through Lothian and joins those of Tweedale. A third, called Lammar-Muir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward through the Merse. Beside those continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, sometimes go by the Celtick word *Laws*. Many of them are stupendously high, and of beautiful forms; but too numerous to be particularized here.

Rivers, Lakes and Forests.] The largest river in Scotland is the Forth, which rises in Monteith near Callendar, and passing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, discharges itself near Edinburg into that arm of the German sea to which it gives the name of Frith of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which issues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbin, and running south-east passes the town of Perth, and falls into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the most rapid river in Scotland, issues from a lake of the same name in Badenoch, and running from south-west to south-east falls into the sea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from west to east, and disembogue themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed rises on the borders of Lanerkshire, and after many beautiful serpentine turnings, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick, where it serves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eastern side. The Clyde is a large river on the west of Scotland, and falls into the Frith of Clyde, opposite to the isle of Bute. Besides those capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior sort, well provided with salmon, trout, and other fishes, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of those rivers go by the name of *Esk*, which is the old Celtick name for water. The greatest improvement for inland navigation, that has been attempted in Great-Britain, was undertaken at a very considerable expense, by a society of publick spirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde together; by which a communication has been opened between the east and west seas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *Lochs*) are too many to be particularly described. Those called Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Loch-ness, Loch Au, and one or two more, present us with such picturesque scenes as are scarcely equalled in Europe, if we except Ireland. Several of these lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of fresh-water fish. The Scots sometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the sea; for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of swans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as some think, to the plant olorina, which grows in its waters, with a straight stalk and a cluster of seeds at the top. Near Loch-ness is a hill almost two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold fresh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. Besides these rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coasts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold and navigable bays, or arms of the sea; as the Bay of Glenluce and Wigtown Bay; sometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which separates Scotland from England on the west; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and those of Cromarty and Dornock.

The face of Scotland, even where it is most uninviting, presents us with the most incontrovertible evidences of its having been formerly overrun with timber. The deepest morasses contain large logs of

wood ; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine have a preserving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been discovered in those morasses. Fir trees grow in great perfection almost all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where some woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth, but without being of much emolument to the proprietors, being at too great a distance from water carriage.

Metals and Minerals.] Though Scotland does not at present boast of its gold mines, yet it is certain that it contains such, or at least that Scotland formerly afforded a considerable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford Moor ; and it is an undoubted fact, that when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered dishes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were presented to the guests by way of desert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, and in the minority of his grandson, drove those foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which since that time have never been recovered.

Several landholders in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead mines, which are said to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of silver ; but we know of no silver mines that are worked at present. Some copper mines have been found near Edinburg ; and many parts of Scotland, in the east, west, and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vast emolument of the publick. Lime-stone is here in great plenty, as is free-stone ; so that the houses of the better sort are constructed of the most beautiful materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places in Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from supplying that defect by plantations of wood ; and the peat-mosses being in many parts, of the north especially, almost exhausted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulties for fuel ; however, the taste for plantations of all kinds, that now prevails, will soon remedy that inconvenience.

Lapis lazuli is said to be dug up in Lanerkshire ; alum mines have been found in Bamffshire ; crystal, variegated pebbles and other transparent stones, which admit of the finest polish for seals, are found in various parts ; as are talk, flint, sea-shells, potters' clay and fullers' earth. The stones which the country people call elf-arrow heads, and to which they assign a supernatural origin and use, were probably the flint heads of arrows made use of by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron ore, both in mines and stones, than Scotland ; of which the proprietors now begin to partake of the profits.

Vegetable and Animal Productions by Sea and Land.] It is certain that the soil of Scotland may be rendered in many parts nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even said, that some tracts of the low countries at present exceed in value English estates of the same extent, because they are far less exhausted and worn out than those of the southern parts of the island ; and agriculture is now perhaps as well

understood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

The merchants of Glasgow, who are the life and soul of that part of the kingdom, and into whose hands a very considerable part of the landed property has lately fallen, while they are daily introducing new branches of commerce, are no less attentive to the progress of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular and the whole island in general, the most essential service. The active genius of these people extends even to moors, rocks and marshes, which being hitherto reckoned useless, were consequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain species of grain or timber, for which the soil is best adapted.

But the fruits of skill and industry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where agriculture is thoroughly understood, and the farmers, who generally rent from 3 to 500l. per ann. are well fed, well clothed and comfortably lodged: The reverse, however, may be observed of a very considerable part of Scotland, which still remains in a state of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real interest, refuse to grant such leases as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In such places the husbandmen barely exist upon the gleanings of a scanty farm, seldom exceeding 20 or 30l. per ann. The cattle are lean and small, the houses mean beyond expression, and the face of the country exhibits the most deplorable marks of poverty and oppression. Indeed, from a mistaken notion of the landed people in general, the greatest part of the kingdom lies naked and exposed, for want of such hedge rows and planting as adorn the country of England. They consider hedges as useless and cumbersome, as occupying more room than what they call stone enclosures, which, except in the Lothians already mentioned, are generally no other than low paltry walls, huddled up of loose stones, without lime or mortar, which have a bleak and mean appearance.

The soil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay and pasture. In the southern counties the finest garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines and peaches, are said to fall little if at all short of those in England; and the same may be said of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of salubrious and pleasant tasted berries; though many extensive tracts are covered with a strong heath. The sea-coast produces the alga marina, dulse or dulish, a most wholesome nutritive weed, in great quantities, and other marine plants.

The Scots have improved in their fisheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture: For societies have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country, and bids fair to emulate the Dutch themselves in curing as well as catching their fish. In former times, the Scots seldom ventured to fish above a league's distance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly and successfully as any of their neighbours. Their salmons, which they can send more early, when prepared, to the Levant and southern markets, than the English or Irish can, are of great service to the na-

tion, as the returns are generally made in specie, or beneficial commodities.

The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland, towards the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the south, are almost incredible, and formerly brought large sums into the country; the black cattle especially, which, when fattened on the southern pastures, have been reckoned superior to English beef. This trade is now said to be on the decline, in consequence of the vast increase of manufactures in Scotland, whose demand for butcher's meat must lessen the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a sufficient stock, by proper methods, may be raised to supply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners and Customs.] If we consult the most ancient and credible histories, the population of Scotland, in the thirteenth century, must have been excessive, as it afforded so many thousands to fall by the swords of the English. Scotland contains 27,793 square miles. The present population is 1,607,760, about 57 for each square mile. This defect of population is owing to the mountainous nature of the country, one half being unfit for cultivation. [*Pinkerton.*]

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; and a kind of a characteristical feature, that of high cheek bones, is observable in their faces; they are lean, but clean limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventuring spirit was chiefly owing to their laws of succession, which invested the elder brother, as head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a very scanty portion for the other sons. This obliged the latter to seek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native soil than the Scots have in general. It is true, this disparity of fortune among the sons of one family prevails in England likewise; but the resources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to those of a country so narrow and so little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

It remains perhaps a question, whether that lettered education, for which the Scots were noted among the neighbouring nations, was not of prejudice to their country, while it was of the utmost service to many of its natives. Their literature rendered them acceptable and agreeable among foreigners; but at the same time it drained the nation of that order of men, who are the best fitted for forming and executing the great plans of commerce and agriculture for the publick emolument.

With regard to gentlemen who live at home, upon estates of 300l. a year and upwards, they differ little or nothing, in their manners and style of living, from their English neighbours of the like fortunes.

The peasantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can conform their tempers better than they do to their stations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their passions, to behave submissively to their superiors, and live within the bounds of the most rigid economy. Hence they save their money and their constitutions, and few instances of murder, perjury, robbery and oth-

er atrocious vices, occur at present in Scotland. The chief food of the lower class is a thick pottage, made of oat-meal, eaten with milk, ale or butter. Having this two or three times a day, and a little meat on the sabbath, the labourers are contented. Instead of wasting what they earn, at the tavern, they save it to purchase decent clothes that they may attend publick worship, preferring the useful decencies of life to momentary gratifications. [*Pinkerton.*] They seldom enter singly upon any daring enterprise ; but when they act in concert, the secrecy, sagacity and resolution with which they carry on any desperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled ; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations arising from their poverty, is still more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conspiracies. Witness that which put Porteus to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midst of 20,000 people ; and though the agents were well known, and some of them tried, with a reward of 500l. annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found sufficient to bring them to punishment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both sexes, under a still greater temptation, to the young Pretender after his defeat at Culloden, could scarcely be believed were it not well attested.

The inhabitants of those parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by pasture, have a natural vein for poetry ; and the beautiful simplicity of the Scotch tunes is relished by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the subject, and many of the airs have been brought upon the English stage with variations, under new names, but with this disadvantage, that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of musick, they are mostly altered for the worse, being stripped of that original simplicity, which, however irregular, is their most essential characteristick, which is so agreeable to the ear, and has such powers over the human breast. Those of a more lively and merry strain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dress, by the fife, an instrument for which they are remarkably well suited.

Dancing is a favourite amusement in this country, but little regard is paid to art or gracefulness ; the whole consists in agility, and in keeping time in their own tunes, which they do with great exactness. One of the particular diversions practised by the gentlemen, is the Goff, which requires an equal degree of art and strength : It is played by a bat and a ball ; the latter is smaller and harder than a cricket ball ; the bat is of a taper construction, till it terminates in the part that strikes the ball, which is loaded with lead, and faced with horn. The diversion itself resembles that of the Mall, which was common in England in the middle of the last century. An expert player will send the ball an amazing distance at one stroke ; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who strikes it in fewest strokes into a hole, wins the game. The diversion of Curling is likewise, I believe, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat stones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common stand to a mark at a certain distance ; and whoever is nearest the mark is the victor. These two may be called the standing summer and winter diversions

of Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diversions common in England, cricket excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen considering it as too athletick and mechanical.

Language.] The language of the Highlanders, especially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, is radically Celtick; 335,000 people in Scotland do not speak the English language. [*Pinkerton.*]

Religion.] Ancient Scottish historians, with Bede, and other writers, generally agree that Christianity was first taught in Scotland by some of the disciples of St. John the apostle, who fled to this northern corner to avoid the persecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publickly professed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scotch historians call Donald the First, his queen, and several of his nobles were solemnly baptized. It was farther confirmed by emigration from South-Britain, during the persecutions of Aurelius and Dioclesian, when it became the established religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who seem to have been the first regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed by overseers or bishops chosen by themselves, from among their own body, and who had no pre-eminence or rank over the rest of their brethren.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, Christianity seems to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed in Scotland as a national church, where it flourished in its native simplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a priest sent by the bishop of Rome, in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romish church, which at last prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that darkness which for many ages overspread Europe; though their dependence upon the Pope was very slender, when compared to the implicit subjection of many other nations.

The Culdees, however, long retained their original manners, and remained a distinct order, notwithstanding the oppression of the Roman clergy, so late as the age of Robert Bruce, in the fourteenth century, when they disappeared. But it is worthy of observation, that the opposition to the old religion in this island, though it ceased in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the same age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of abilities and learning, who was the forerunner, in the work of reformation, to John Huss and Jerome of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther and John Calvin.

The reformation in Scotland began in the reign of James V. made great progress under that of his daughter Mary, and was at length completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and in a degree was the apostle of Scotland.

The bounds of this work do not admit of entering at large upon the doctrinal and economical part of the church of Scotland. It is sufficient to say, that its first principle is a parity of ecclesiastical authority among all its presbyters; and it is modelled principally after the Calvinistical plan established at Geneva. The power of the Scotch clergy is at present very moderate, or at least very moderately exercised. They have been, ever since the revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the house of Hanover; and acted with remarkable

intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dress without clerical robes; but some of them appear in the pulpit in gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands. They make no use of set forms in worship. The rents of the bishops, since the abolition of episcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purposes. A thousand pounds a year is always sent by his majesty for the use of the protestant schools, erected by act of parliament in North-Britain and the Western Isles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the support of their widows and orphans. The number of parishes in Scotland are eight hundred and ninety, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches; that is, where the cure is served by more than one minister. But many of those in the Highlands and islands are too large to receive much benefit from a single minister. Some of them are 60 miles long and 40 broad. Others consist of several islands, separated by leagues of boisterous sea. [*Presb. Mag.*]

The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is the general assembly, which we may call the ecclesiastical parliament of Scotland. It consists of commissioners, some of which are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from presbyteries, royal burghs and universities. A presbytery, consisting of under twelve ministers, sends two ministers and one ruling elder: If it contain between twelve and eighteen ministers, it sends three, and one ruling elder: If it contain between eighteen and twenty-four ministers, it sends four ministers and two ruling elders; but if the presbytery has twenty-four ministers, it sends five ministers and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh sends one ruling elder, and Edinburg two; whose election must be attested by the respective kirk-sessions of their own burghs. Every university sends one commissioner, usually a minister of their own body. The commissioners are chosen yearly, six weeks before the meeting of the assembly. The ruling elders are often of the first quality of the country.

The king presides, by his commissioner (who is always a nobleman) in this assembly, which meets once a year; but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceedings is regular, though the number of members often creates a confusion; which the moderator, who is chosen by them to be as it were speaker of the house, has not sufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland to the general assembly, and no appeal lies from its determinations in religious matters.

Provincial synods are next in authority to the general assembly. They are composed of a number of the adjacent presbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland, but their acts are reversible by the general assembly.

Subordinate to the synods, are presbyteries, sixty-nine of which are in Scotland, each consisting of a number of contiguous parishes. The ministers of these parishes, with one ruling elder, chosen half-yearly out of every kirk-session, compose a presbytery. These presbyteries meet in the head town of that division; but have no jurisdiction beyond their own bounds, though within these they have cognizance of all ecclesiastical causes and matters. A chief part of their business is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular

and solemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or present in six months after a vacancy, otherwise the presbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk-session is the lowest ecclesiastical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own parish. The members consist of the minister, elders and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and have the superintendency of the poor, and take care of other parochial affairs. The elder, or, as he is called, the ruling elder, is a place of great parochial trust, and he is generally a lay person of quality or interest in the parish. They are supposed to act in a kind of co-ordinancy with the minister, and to be assisting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechising, visiting the sick, and at the communion table.

The office of ministers, or preaching presbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling elders; they alone can preach, administer the sacraments, catechise, pronounce church censures, ordain deacons and ruling elders, assist at the imposition of hands upon other ministers, and moderate or preside in all ecclesiastical judicatories.

The other sects of dissenters in Scotland are Episcopalians, a few Quakers, many Roman Catholicks, and some Sectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Episcopacy, from the time of the restoration in 1660 to that of the revolution in 1688, was the established church of Scotland. The partisans of the duke of York retained the episcopal religion; and king William's government was rendered so unpopular in Scotland, that in queen Anne's time the episcopalians were more numerous in some parts than the presbyterians, and their meetings, which they held under the act of toleration, as well attended. A Scotch episcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received some checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themselves so well, that at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous, after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings still subsist, but thinly.

Scotland, during the time of episcopacy, contained two archbishopricks, St. Andrews and Glasgow; and twelve bishopricks.

Learning and learned Men.] For this article we may refer to the literary history of Europe, for 1400 years past. The western parts and isles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apostle of Ireland; and many others since, whose bare names would make a long article. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, most unquestionably held a correspondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he formed a famous league; and employed Scotchmen in planning, settling, and ruling his favourite universities, and other seminaries of learning, in France, Italy and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a seemingly paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philosopher and historian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flourished in the year 1638, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure English as that bard, and his versification is perhaps more harmonious. The destruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity have rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin style of Buchanan's history

is, to this day, the most classical of all modern productions. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes are incomparably the finest compositions of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbarisms of those sent them in answer. This has been considered as a proof, that classical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland than at any other in Europe.

The discovery of the logarithms (a discovery, which in point of ingenuity and utility, may vie with any that has been made in modern times) is the indisputable right of Napier of Merchiston. And since his time, the mathematical sciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great success. Keil, in his physico-mathematical works, to the clearness of his reasoning has added the colouring of a poet, which is the more remarkable, not only as the subject is little susceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. Of all writers on astronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the most perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of Sir Isaac Newton, was endowed with all that precision and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehensions, and for diffusing that light through the world, which Newton had confined within the sphere of the learned. His Treatise on Fluxions is regarded by the best judges in Europe, as the clearest account of the most refined and subtile speculations on which the human mind ever exerted itself with success. While Maclaurin pursued this new career, a geometrician no less famous distinguished himself in the sure, but almost deserted tract of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simson, so well known over Europe for his illustration of the ancient geometry. His elements of Euclid, and above all, his Conick Sections, are sufficient of themselves, to establish the scientifick reputation of his native country.

This, however, does not rest on the character of a few mathematicians and astronomers. The fine arts have been called sisters to denote their affinity. There is the same connection between the sciences, particularly those which depend on observation. Mathematicks and physicks, properly so called, were in Scotland accompanied by the other branches of study to which they are allied. In medicine, particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie and Whyt, hold a distinguished place.

Nor have the Scots been unsuccessful in cultivating the belles lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderness and feeling, are astonished at the poetick genius and delicate sensibility of Thomson.

But of all literary pursuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and respect. The philosophy of Dr. Hutcheson,* not to mention other works more subtile and elegant, but less convincing and less instructive, deserves to be read by all who know their duty, or who would wish to practise it.

* Ireland also claims the honour of giving birth to this gentleman, and upon (apparently) good authority.

Next to Locke's Essay on the Human Understanding, it is perhaps the best dissection of the human mind, that hath appeared in modern times; and it is likewise the most useful supplement to that essay.

It would be endless to mention all the individuals, who have distinguished themselves in the various branches of literature; particularly as those who are alive (some of them in high esteem for historical, ethical and sermonick composition) dispute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with unfading laurels. The mode of education pursued in Scotland is superior to that of any other country in Europe. In every country parish is a schoolmaster as well as a clergyman. In the highlands, the children of the poor attend their flocks in summer and their schools in winter. [*Pinkerton.*]

Universities.] The universities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrews, founded in 1411; Glasgow, about 1453; Aberdeen, 1494; and Edinburg, 1582. In these universities are Professors in Greek, Humanity, Hebrew, Oriental Languages, Logick, Moral Philosophy, Natural Philosophy, Mathematicks, Practical Astronomy, Civil and Church History, Divinity, Rhetorick and Belles Lettres, Civil and Scotch Law, Medicine, Anatomy, Botany and Agriculture.

Society.] A society was incorporated by patent, in the year 1708, for erecting schools in North-Britain and the Isles; and in 1716, an act passed for their establishment, and a fund of 20,005l. was appropriated, and made a stock for carrying on the design. The society applied to George II. for an additional charter to erect work-houses for employing children in manufactures, housewifery and husbandry, in the Highlands and Isles, and obtained from him not only a patent, but a revenue of 1,000l. a year. In consequence of which, the society now have more than a hundred schools of industry, in which above 2000 young persons, chiefly females, are instructed. Where they have toiled in the field, they are now taught spinning, knitting and other employments, appropriate to females. They are also taught the principles of religion, and to read the scriptures. The society also maintain above 300 schoolmasters, who instruct about 16,000 children, beside 13 missionaries and six students in divinity. They also distribute vast numbers of bibles and books of piety.

[*Dr. Kemp.*]

Cities, Towns and other Edifices, publick and private.] Edinburg. This city is situated in W. long. 3°, N. lat. 56°, near the southern bank of the river Forth, upon a steep hill, rising from E. to W. and terminating in a high rock, on which the castle stands. It is the metropolis of Scotland. It has lately been embellished with a great number of fine houses in modern taste. Its chief street is the noblest in the world: It is broad enough for five coaches to pass abreast. This street is exceedingly well paved, and rises in the middle, with canals on each side. The houses are very lofty, especially in the High-street; some are not less than fourteen stories in height. This is owing to their being straitened for room, which being too small for great foundations, they are forced to make up for that scantiness by the superstructures. Most of the houses being parted into tenements, they have as many landlords as stories, without dependence on one another. The excessive height of buildings has late-

ly been prohibted. The city is watered by leaden pipes brought from a neighbouring spring. It contains, besides churches, several magnificent buildings, among which is the castle already mentioned, situated at the west end of the city, inaccessible on the north, south, and west, and at the entrance from the city is defended by an outwork and a round battery: It is furnished with water by two wells in a rock. In this place are kept the regalia and records of state.

The hospital, founded by George Herriot, stands on the south-west of the castle, in a noble situation. It is the finest and most regular specimen which Inigo Jones has left us of his Gothick manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be seen in England. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradesmen of Edinburg, and is under the direction of the city magistrates.

The Parliament Square, or, as it there called, Close, was formerly the most ornamental part of this city; it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which consists of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equestrian statue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament house, though not so large, is better proportioned than Westminster-hall; and its roof, though executed in the same manner, has been by good judges held to be superior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a single judge, called the lord ordinary, presides by rotation; in a room near it, sit the other judges; and adjoining are the publick offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, shrievalty, and magistracy of Edinburg; and in it is kept the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the like kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at first entirely founded and furnished by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with great taste and judgment. It contains likewise the most valuable manuscript remains of the Scotch history, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a series of medals. Adjoining to the library is the room where the publick records are kept; but both it and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are miserably dark and dismal. It is said that preparations are now carrying on, for lodging both the books and the papers in rooms far better suited to their importance and value.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburg, such as the exchange, publick offices, its hospitals, bridges, and the like, demonstrate the vast improvement of the taste of the Scots in their publick works. Parallel to the city of Edinburg, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others have begun to build a new town, upon a plan which does honour to the present age. The streets and squares are laid out with the utmost regularity, and the houses are to be built of stone, in an elegant taste. The fronts of some are superbly finished in all the beauties of architecture, displaying at the same time the judgment of the builder, and the publick spirit of the proprietor.

Between the old and the new town, is a narrow vale, which, agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a sheet of water, bordered by a terrace walk, and the ascent towards the new town covered with pleasure gardens, shrubberies, &c. But this elegant de-

sign was frustrated, through the narrow ideas of the magistrates, who, finding greater benefits by letting the grounds to inferior tradesmen upon building leases, this spot, formed by nature as an agreeable opening to a crowded city, became a nuisance to those gentlemen who had been so liberal in ornamenting the buildings upon the summit. A decision of the house of lords (in which a certain great luminary of the law, equally distinguished for his taste and good sense, heartily concurred) put a stop to these mean erections. At the west, or upper end of this vale, the castle, a solid rock, not less than twenty stories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eastern extremity is bounded by a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the descent on each side the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages.

Edinburg contains a play house, which has now the sanction of an act of parliament; and concerts, assemblies, balls, musick meetings, and other polite amusements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majesty's dominions, London and Bath excepted.

Edinburg is governed by a lord provost, four baillies, a dean of guild and a treasurer, annually chosen from the common council.

Leith, though near two miles distant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburg, being under the same jurisdiction. The neighbourhood of Edinburg is adorned with noble seats, which are daily increasing; some of them yield to few in England; but they are too numerous to be particularized here. About four miles from Edinburg is Roslin, noted for a stately Gothick chapel, considered as one of the most curious pieces of workmanship in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney and duke of Oldenburg. In 1791 the population was 84,886, and is now probably more than 90,000. [*Pinkerton.*]

Glasgow, in the shire of Lanerk, situated on a gentle declivity, sloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles west of Edinburg, is, for population, commerce and riches, the second city of Scotland; and, considering its size, the first in Great-Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are broad, straight, well paved and kept very clean. The houses make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five stories high, and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern built churches, are in the finest style of architecture; and the cathedral is a stupendous Gothick building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which stands above another, and is furnished with a very fine spire springing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a masterly and a matchless fabrick. It was dedicated to St. Mungo or Kentigern, who was bishop of Glasgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preserved from the fury of the rigid reformers by the resolution of the citizens. The town-house is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magistrates. The univer-

sity is esteemed the most spacious and best built of any in Scotland, and is at present in a thriving state. In this city are several well endowed hospitals; and it is particularly well supplied with large and convenient inns. The number of inhabitants in this city in 1755 was computed at 23,546, including the suburbs; in 1791 the number was estimated at 61,945. In 1791 the cotton manufacture employed 15,000 looms; the goods produced were estimated at 1,500,000l. [*Pinkerton.*]

Aberdeen bids fair to be the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a shire, to which it gives its name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is the shire town, and evidently built for the purpose of commerce. It is a large well built city, and has a good quay, or tide harbour: In it are three churches, and several episcopal meeting-houses, a considerable degree of foreign commerce and much shipping, a well frequented university, and 24,493 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile distant, though almost joined to the New, by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other; it is a moderately large market town, but has no haven. In each of these two places there is a well endowed college, both together being termed the university of Aberdeen, although quite independent of each other.

Perth, the capital town of Perthshire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltick: It is finely situated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the most fertile spots in Great-Britain, called the Carse of Gowry Dundee, and contains about 28,000 inhabitants: It lies near the mouth of the river Tay: It is a town of considerable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to foreign parts, and has three churches. Montrose, Aberbrothie and Brechin lie, also, in the county of Angus: The first has a large and increasing trade, and the manufactures of the other two are flourishing.

Berwick is a fortified town and has considerable trade in salmon. Dumfries has 6000 inhabitants. Ayr, in the S. W. of Scotland, has 7000 inhabitants; the chief trade is grain and coal. Irwin has 4000 inhabitants, Greenock 15,000, Paisley 20,000 Dumfermline 5000. [*Pinkerton.*]

Curiosities.] Two Pictish monuments, as they are thought to be, of a very extraordinary construction, were lately standing in Scotland; one of them at Abernethy in Perthshire, the other at Brechin in Angus; both of them are columns, hollow in the inside, and a staircase without: That of Brechin is the most entire, being covered at the top with a spiral roof of stone, with three or four windows above the cornice: It consists of sixty regular courses of hewn freestone, laid circularly and regularly, and tapering towards the top. If these columns are really Pictish, that people must have had among them architects that far exceeded those of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order; and the building is neat and in the Roman style of architecture. It is, however, difficult to assign them to any but the Picts, as they stand in their dominions; and some sculptures upon that at Brechin,

denote it to be of christian origin. It is not indeed impossible that these sculptures are of a later date. Beside these two pillars, many other Pictish buildings are found in Scotland, but not in the same taste.

The vestiges of erections by the ancient Scots are not only curious but instructive, as they regard many important events of their history. That people had amongst them a rude notion of sculpture, in which they transmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obelisks are still to be seen, called the Danish stones of Aberlemno. They were erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horseback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphicks, not intelligible at this day. There is a stone near the town of Forres, or Fortrose, in Murray, which far surpasses all the others in magnificence and grandeur, "and is (says Mr. Gordon) perhaps one of the most stately monuments of that kind in Europe. It rises about 23 feet in height, above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no less than 12 or 15 feet below; so that the whole height is at least 35 feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one single and entire stone; great variety of figures in relievo are carved thereon, and some of them still distinct and visible; but the injury of the weather has obscured those toward the upper part."

At Sandwick, in Ross-shire, is a very splendid ancient obelisk, surrounded at the base with large, well cut flag stones, formed like steps. Both sides of the column are covered with various ornaments, in well finished carved work. The one face presents a sumptuous cross, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and some uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central division on the reverse, exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds and animals.

Beside these remains of Scotch antiquities, there are many Roman, Pictish and Danish remains, and many Druidical monuments and temples are discernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the isles, where we may suppose that paganism took its last refuge. They are easily percieved by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are so stupendous as the Druidical erections in South-Britain. There is, in Perthshire, a barrow which seems to be a British erection, and the most beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world; it exactly resembles the figure of a ship, with the keel uppermost. The common people call it Ternay, which some interpret to be *terræ navis*, the ship of earth. It seems to be of the most remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of some British prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles distant from the great scene of Agricola's operations.

The traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finehaven is one instance; and the hill of Bergonium, near Dunstaffage castle, is another, yielding vast quantities of pumice or scoria of different kinds, many of which are of the same species with those of the volcanick Iceland.

Near Lathron in Caithness is a large cave, into which the inhabitants sail to kill seals. Near Sandwick is a grove of hazels 4 inches

high, which bears nuts. On the northern shores of the Forth, near Dysart, a coal mine has for ages been on fire. [*Pinkerton.*]

Commerce and Manufactures.] See England. Scotland, in respect to her commerce and manufactures, has, for some years past, been in a very improving state. The expedition of the Scots to take possession of Darien, (of which we gave some account in the general description of America) and to carry on an East and West-India trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and (so far as it went) executed with a noble spirit of enterprise. The miscarriage of that scheme, after receiving the highest and most solemn sanctions, is a disgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, independent, and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the long languor of the Scottish commerce, and many other misfortunes which that country sustained, by the disgust the inhabitants conceived on that account, and some invasions of their rights afterwards, which they thought inconsistent with the articles of union.

The increase of their shipping, within these thirty years past, has been very considerable. The exports of those ships are composed chiefly of Scotch manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the soil, and the industry of its inhabitants. In exchange for these, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, sugar and rum, from the British plantations; from the United States of America, and from other countries, their produce, to the immense saving of their nation. The prosperity of Glasgow, and its neighbourhood hath been greatly owing to the connection and trade with Virginia, and some other of the American states.

The fisheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coast; they have a great concern in the whale fishery, on the coast of Spitsbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government allows them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of shipping employed in that business.

The busses, or vessels employed in the great herring fishery on the western coasts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-west parts of England, the north of Ireland, and in the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring islands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbletown, a commodious port in Argyleshire, facing the north of Ireland, where sometimes 300 vessels have been assembled.

The benefits of the fisheries are perhaps equalled by various manufactures, particularly that of iron, at Carron in Sterlingshire. The linen manufactory, notwithstanding a strong rivalship from Ireland, is in a flourishing state. The thread manufactory of Scotland is equal, if not superior, to any in the world; and the lace, fabricated from it, has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been said, some years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England, and the British plantations, in linen, cambricks, checks, osnaburgs, inkle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000l. exclusive of their home consumption; and there is reason to believe that the sum is considerably larger at present. The Scots are likewise making very promising efforts for establishing woollen manufactories; and their exports of caps, stockings, mittens, and

other articles of their own wool, begin to be very considerable.

Among the other late improvements of the Scots, we are not to forget the vast progress they have made in working the mines, and smelting the ores of their country. Their coal trade to England is very considerable, and of late they have turned even their stones to account, by their contracts for paving the streets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the English, is now diminished, it is owing to the best of national causes, that of an increase of home consumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots, with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eastern ports of the nation; but Glasgow was formerly the great emporium for the American commerce. The late junction of the Forth to the Clyde will render the benefits of trade of mutual advantage to both parts of Scotland.

The town of Paisley employs a great number of hands in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and striped lawns, which are a cheap and fashionable wear. Sugar houses, glass works of every kind, delf houses and paper mills are erected in very many places. The Scotch carpeting is neat and fashionable.

Inland Navigation.] The canal from the Forth to the Clyde is a grand and useful work. It is seven feet deep; the breadth, at the surface, is 66 feet; the locks are 75 feet long, their gates 20 feet wide. It is raised from the Carron, by 20 locks, in 10 miles, to the height of 155 feet. At the 20th lock begins the canal of partition, on the summit between the E. and W. seas; it continues on a level for 18 miles, a mile from the Clyde. The canal is carried through mossy grounds and solid rock. The fourth mile cost 18,000l. There are, in the whole, 18 draw bridges, 15 aqueduct bridges, besides smaller ones and tunnels. Two reservoirs supply this canal. One is 24 feet deep, and covers 50 acres; the other covers 70 acres, and is banked at the sluice 22 feet. The distance between the firths of Clyde and Forth was 600 miles; now is scarcely 100; the length of the canal is 35 miles. Another noble design is to connect Fort William and Inverness. The canal of Crinan, which will save going round Cantire, is begun. Could a canal be opened from the Firth of Dornoch and Loch Shin into the bay of Colval, it would be of great importance. [*Pinkerton.*]

Revenues.] See ENGLAND.

Government.] The ancient constitution of government in Scotland has been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preservation of liberty; and it is certain that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the constitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his assuming or exercising a despotick authority. But the Scottish constitution of government was too much of the aristocratick kind, to afford to the common people that equal liberty, which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was sufficiently restrained; but the nobles, chieftains and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyrannize over and oppress their tenants, and the common people.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promises, viz.

"In the name of Christ, I promise these three things to the Christian people my subjects: First, That I shall give, order and employ my force and assistance, that the church of God, and the Christian people, may enjoy true peace during our time, under our government. Secondly, I shall prohibit and hinder all persons, of whatever degree, from violence and injustice. Thirdly, In all judgments I shall follow the prescriptions of justice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may show mercy unto me and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land, however small, of the crown by military service. This parliament appointed the times of its own meeting and adjournment, and committees to superintend the administration during the intervals of parliament: It had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the publick money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people and appointed commanders; it named and commissioned ambassadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of state and privy counsellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and restrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other publick business of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was so bounded, that he was not even entrusted with the executive part of the government. In short, the constitution was rather aristocratical than monarchical.

The privy council of Scotland, before the revolution, had, or assumed, inquisitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now sunk in the parliament and privy council of Great-Britain; and the civil and criminal causes in Scotland are chiefly cognizable by two courts of judicature.

The first is that of the college of justice, which was instituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament. This court consists of a president and fourteen ordinary members, besides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may sit and vote, but have no salaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a standing jury in all matters of property that lie before them. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom.

The justice court is the highest criminal tribunal in Scotland; but in its present form it was instituted so late as the year 1672, when a lord justice general, removable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. This lucrative office still exists in the person of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court are, the justice clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of session. In this court, the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits; but without any necessity of their being unanimous.

Besides these two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the union, have a court of exchequer, with the same power, authority, privilege and jurisdiction over the revenue of Scotland, as the

court of exchequer, in England, has over the revenues there; and all matters and things competent to the court of exchequer in England relating thereto, are likewise competent to the exchequer of Scotland.

The court of admiralty in Scotland, was in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a supreme court, in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction; and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and justice general upon the seas, and in all ports, harbours and creeks of the same; and upon fresh waters and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood-mark; so that nothing competent to his jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord high admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty, may be brought again before his court; but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the session, or any other judicatory, unless in cases not maritime. Causes are tried in this court by the civil law, which, in such cases, is likewise the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wisby and the Hanse towns, and other maritime practices and decisions common upon the continent. The place of lord admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the salary annexed to it is worth 1000l. a year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which answers to the English inns of courts, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are within themselves an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attornies, who call themselves writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a bye government for their own regulation. Such are the different law courts that are held in the capital of Scotland.

One thing, which we must not omit to mention, proves the similarity between the English and Scotch constitutions. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in presence of the king, who was seated on the top of a hillock, which in the old Scotch constitutions, is called the Moot, or Mute-hill; all national affairs were here transacted; judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill is probably of the same nature with the Saxon Fole-mote, and may signify no more than the hill of meeting.

History.] The Caledonians were, probably, the first inhabitants of Scotland; the Picts, undoubtedly, were the Britons, who were forced northwards by the Belgick Gauls, above fourscore years before the descent of Julius Cæsar; and who settling in Scotland were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, that were driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots, most probably were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had served in the armies of the continent, and, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country.

Christianity was introduced into Scotland, about the year 201 of the Christian era, by Donald I.

Mary, daughter and successor of James V. was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her misconduct and her misfortunes, are alike famous in history. During her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland. Being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her own cousin-german, the lord Darnly, whose untimely death hath given rise to much controversy. The consequence of her husband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was considered as his murderer, was an insurrection of her subjects, from whom she fled into England, where she was ungenerously detained a prisoner for eighteen years, and afterwards, on motives of state policy, beheaded by queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the forty-sixth year of her age.

Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, succeeded in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the English crown, after shewing considerable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in 1603, destroyed the independency, as it impoverished the people of Scotland: James, after a splendid, but troublesome reign over his three kingdoms, left them in 1625, to his son, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his despotick principles and conduct, induced both his Scottish and his English subjects to take up arms against him; and indeed, it was in Scotland that the sword was first drawn against Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himself into the power of the Scottish army: They at first treated him with respect, but afterwards delivered him up to the English parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was said to be due them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made several bloody, but unsuccessful attempts, to restore his son, Charles II. [*See Robertson's History of Scotland.*]

ISLANDS OF SCOTLAND.

THE Islands of Scotland are the Shetland, Orcades or Orkney, and the Hebrides, or Western Isles.

Situation and Extent.] The islands of Shetland lie north-east of the Orcades or Orkney islands, between 59° 59′ and 61° 15′ of north latitude; and are part of the shire of Orkney.

The islands inhabited are 33, their population is 19,885. Their shortest day is 4 hours and 45 minutes, their longest 19 hours 15 minutes. These, as also the Hebrides and Orkney islands, are destitute of trees. The ground produces a poor species of oats and barley, also potatoes, cabbages, and colewort. In the spring and early part of summer they have so little vegetation as to feed their cattle with fish. Few of their horses are eleven hands high. Fishing is the principal employment of the men; hence they are skilful and daring mariners. When not engaged in the field, knitting is the principal employment of the women. In their cloathing they use no linen; the men, when at sea in cold weather, wear a surtout of sheep skin, the wool next to them. Lerwick is the only town; it contains

about 200 houses. Sir-names are not yet adopted here. If the father's name be Thomas, the son may be called Peter Thomason, or John Thomason. There are but two publick schools in all these islands, but there is a hope that the rich proprietors, and the society for propagating the gospel, will soon establish a competent number of schools to instruct the youth in the first principles of literature and religion.

The Orcades lie north of Dungsby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by a tempestuous strait, called Pentland Frith, 24 miles long and 12 broad.

The Hebrides, or Western isles are very numerous, and some of them large; situated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

Climate.] There is very little difference in the climate of these islands, the air being clear, piercing and salubrious; so that many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney islands they see to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the summer months, they have frequent communications, both for business and curiosity, with each other, and with the continent: The rest of the year, however, they are almost inaccessible, through fogs, darkness and storms.

Chief Islands and Towns.] The largest of the Shetland islands, which are forty-six in number, (though many of them are uninhabited) is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the island does not exceed 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a castle are still to be seen, and it is the seat of a presbytery.

The largest of the Orkney islands is called Pomona. Its length is 33 miles, and its breadth, in some places, 9. It contains nine parish churches, and four excellent harbours.

The isle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is 24 miles long, and its medium breadth about 18. It contains two parishes, and a castle, called Duart, which is the chief place in the island. The population is 7000. The climate is cloudy and rainy; the chief diet of the people is potatoes or barley meal with a little fish; their drink, water with a little whiskey. Their thatch hovels, guarded from the wind by large stones, with a hole in the roof to let out the smoke, are more miserable dwellings than those of the Laplander or American savage. The other principal western islands are Lewis, or Harries, (for they both form but one island) which belongs to the shire of Ross, and is 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth; its chief town is Stornvay. Sky, belonging to the shire of Inverness, is 40 miles long, and, in some places, 30 broad; fruitful and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the castle of Rothsay, which gave the title of duke to the eldest sons of the kings of Scotland; as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothsay is likewise a royal burgh; and the islands of Bute and Arran form the shire of Bute. The isles of Ila and Jury, are part of Argyleshire, and contain together about 370 square miles, but they have no towns worthy of notice. Hay belongs to Mr. Campbell of Shawfield. The inhabitants are 7000. Lead ore is

found here mingled with silver. Jury is 20 miles long and about 5 wide. It produces potatoes and barley, and contains abundance of peat. North-Uist contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring fishing. The famous isle of Iona was once the seat and sanctuary of western learning, and the burying place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland and Norway. It is still famous for its reliques of sanctimonious antiquity.

Inhabitants, Customs, Population and Religion.] The inhabitants of the islands of Shetland and Orkney were formerly subject to the Normans, who conquered them in 1099. In the year 1263 they were in possession of Magnus of Norway, who sold them to Alexander, king of Scots. After this they were claimed by, and became subject to, the crown of Denmark. Christian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret, and all future pretensions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The isles of Shetland and Orkney form a stewartry, or shire, which sends a member to parliament. At present the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland. Men of fortune there, have greatly improved their estates of late years, and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries. They build their dwelling and other houses in a modern taste; and are remarkable for the fineness of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheese, fish, sea and land fowl, (of which they have a great plenty) particularly geese; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art to ferment, so as to give it a vinous quality. In some of the northern islands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norse language, is still spoken. Their vast intercourse with the Dutch, during the fishing season, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney islands. The people there are as expert as the Norwegians, already described, in seizing the nests of sea-fowls, who build in the most frightful precipices and rocks. The people's temperance preserves them from any diseases known to luxury. They cure the scurvy and the jaundice, to which they are subject, with the powder of snail shells and scurvy grass, of which they have plenty. Their religion is Protestant, and according to the discipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil institutions are much the same with those of the country to which they belong. But among them many papal and pagan notions still prevail.

Nothing certain can be mentioned, as to the population of these three divisions of islands. We have the most undoubted evidences of history, that about 400 years ago, they were much more populous than they are now: For the Hebrides themselves were known often to send 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At present, their numbers are said not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are clothed and live like the Scotch Highlanders.

The religion professed in the Hebrides is chiefly Presbyterian, as established in the church of Scotland; but the Roman Catholick religion still prevails among some of the islanders.

Soil, Mines and Quarries.] It is certain that the soil, both of the northern and western islands belonging to Scotland, has suffered an amazing alteration. It is evident that many of these islands have been the habitations of the Druids, whose temples are still visible in most of them; and those temples were surrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The stumps of former trees, however, are discernible, as are many vestiges of grandeur, even since the admission of the Christian religion; which prove the decrease of the riches, power and population of the inhabitants. Experience daily shews, that if the soil of the northern and western islands, till of late, were barren, cold and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for such spots of them as are now cultivated, produce corn, vegetables and garden stuff, more than sufficient for the inhabitants; and even fruit trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead and silver mines; marl, slate, free-stone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon these islands. They are not destitute of fine fresh water; nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the same time it must be owned, that the present face of the soil is bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that were reared in gardens.

Trade and Manufactures.] These are all in their infancy in these islands. The reader can reasonably suppose, that their staple commodities consist of fish, especially herrings, which are equal to any in the world, and, when properly cured, are equal even to those of the Dutch. They carry on likewise a considerable trade in down and feathers; and their sheep afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarse cloths; and even the linen manufactures make no small progress in these islands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are disposed of in sale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they salt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and industry, with some portion of publick encouragement, are only wanting to render these islands at once ornamental and beneficial to their mother country, as well as to their inhabitants.

Horses.] The Shetland isles are famous for a small breed of horses, which are incredibly active, strong and hardy, and frequently seen in the streets of London, in the splendid carriages of the curious or wealthy.

Rarities and Curiosities, artificial and natural.] These islands exhibit many proofs, in their churches, the vestiges of old forts, and other buildings both sacred and civil, of what hath already been observed, that they were formerly more populous than they now are. The use and construction of some of those works are not easily accounted for at present. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the western isles, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a stone, called a dwarf stone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick; in which is a square hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a stone of the same size for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the stone, big enough for two men to lie on: At the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney.

The gigantick bones found in many burying places here, give room to believe, that the former inhabitants were of larger size than the present. It is likewise probable, from some ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine silver fibulæ or clasps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with these parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwal, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothick building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a parish church. Its roof is supported by 14 pillars on each side, and its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stones, embossed and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are still more distinguished than the Orkney or Shetland isles, for their remains of antiquity; and it would far exceed the bounds allotted to this head, were we even to mention every noted monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purposes. Innumerable are the inscriptions of ancient customs and ceremonies that are discernible upon this island; and which give countenance to the observation, that when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in these islands.

But some of the most astonishing appearances in nature have remained undescribed, and, till lately, unobserved, even by the natives of these islands: A discovery reserved for the inquisitive genius of Sir Joseph Banks, who, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, in 1772, says, "We were no sooner arrived, than we were struck with a scene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the most sanguine foundations; the whole of that end of the island (viz. Staffa, a mile in length and half a mile in breadth) supported by ranges of natural pillars, mostly above fifty feet high, standing in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themselves: Upon a firm basis of solid, unformed rock, above these, the stratum which reaches to the soil or surface of the island, varied in thickness as the island itself formed into hills and vallies; each hill, which hung over the columns below, formed an ample pediment; some of these, above sixty feet in thickness from the base to the point, formed by the sloping of the hill on each side, almost into the shape of those used in architecture.

"Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or palaces built by man? Mere models or playthings. Imitations as diminutive, as his works will always be, when compared to those of nature. Where is now the boast of the architect? Regularity, the only part in which he fancied himself to exceed his mistress, Nature, is here found in her possession; and here it has been for ages undescribed. Proceeding farther to the N. W. you meet with the highest ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which is past all description: Here they are bare to their very bases, and the stratum below them is also visible."

Mr. Banks particularizes sundry other appearances in this and a neighbouring island, which is wholly composed of pillars without any stratum. In some parts of Staffa, instead of being placed upright, the

pillars were observed to lie on their sides, each forming a segment of a circle; but the most striking object in this field of scenery is Fingal's Cave, which Mr. Banks describes in the following manner: "With our minds full of such reflections, we proceed along the shore, treading upon another *Giant's Causeway*, every stone being regularly formed into a certain number of sides and angles; till, in a short time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the most magnificent, I suppose, that has ever been described by travellers.* The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than such a space, supported on each side by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which a yellow stalagmitick matter has exuded, which serves to define the angles precisely, and at the same time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance. And to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; so that the farthest extremity is very plainly seen from without: And the air within being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholesome, free entirely from the damp of vapours with which natural caverns in general abound."

Mr. Pennant, who also made a voyage to these islands in the same year, had a glance of Staffa, in his passage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by stormy weather from approaching it. "On the west," says he, "appears the beautiful groupe of the Treashunish isles.—Nearest lies Staffa, a new Giant's Causeway, rising amidst the waves, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; glossy and resplendent, from the beams of the eastern sun." And in the isle of Sky, a considerable way northward, he resumes the subject. "We had in view a fine series of genuine basaltick columns, resembling the Giant's Causeway; the pillars were above twenty feet high, consisting of four, five and six angles, but mostly of five. At a small distance from these, on the slope of a hill, is a tract of some roads entirely formed of the tops of several series of columns, even and close set, forming a reticulated surface of amazing beauty and curiosity. This is the most northern basaltes I am acquainted with; the last of four in the British dominions, all running from north to south, nearly in a meridian: The Giant's Causeway appears first; Staffa, &c. succeed; the rock Humbla, about twenty leagues farther; and finally, those columns of Sky: The depth of the ocean, in all probability, conceals the vast links of this chain."

* The dimensions of the cave are thus given by Mr. Banks.

	Feet.		Feet.
Length of the cave from the arch without	371	At the end	70
		Height of an outside pillar	39
From the pitch of the arch	250	Of one at the N. W. corner	54
Breadth of ditto at the mouth	53	Depth of water at the mouth	18
At the farther end	20	At the bottom	9
Height of the arch at the mouth	117		

IRELAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		
Length	285*	between	51° and 55° 30′ N. lat.
Breadth	160		6° and 10° W. lon.

Containing 17,900,000 acres; or, as Pinkerton calculates, 27,457 square miles, but Beaufort says 30,370.

Boundaries.] THIS island is bounded on the north by the Deucaledonian Sea; on the south and west by the Atlantick Ocean; and on the east by the Irish Sea, or St. George's Channel, which divides it from the western shores of Great-Britain, from which it is distant, in some places, not more than 19 or 20 leagues.

Divisions.] See general account of GREAT-BRITAIN.

Name.] The Irish antiquarians generally agree, that the ancient name of Ireland was Scotia, and that at different periods, it has also been called Ierne, Juverna, Hibernia, &c.

Climate, Soil and Face of the Country.] The climate of Ireland, though it does not generally differ much from that of England, is however found to possess an atmosphere more moist, with more frequent returns of rain. From the reports of various registers it appears, that the number of days, on which rain had fallen in Ireland was much greater than in the same years in England. But without the evidence of registers, it is certain, that moisture (even without rain) is not only more characteristick of the climate of this island than that of England, but is also one of its worst and most inconvenient circumstances. This is accounted for in observing, that "the westerly winds, so favourable to other regions and so benign even in this, by qualifying the rigour of the northern air, are yet hurtful in the extreme. Meeting with no lands on this side of America to break their force, and proving in the general too powerful for the counteraction of the shifting winds from the eastern and African continents, they waft hither the vapours of an immense ocean. The sky is hereby much obscured; and, from the nature of rest and condensation, these vapours descend in such constant rains, as threaten destruction to the fruits of the earth in some seasons. This unavoidable evil from natural causes is aggravated by the increase of it from others, which are either moral or political. The hand of industry has been long idle in a country where almost every advantage must be obtained from its labour, and where discouragements on the labourer must necessarily produce a state of languor, equally hurtful to the prosperity and manners of every nation. Ever since the neglect of agriculture in the ninth century, the rains of so many ages, subsiding on the lower grounds, have converted most of the extensive plains into mossy morasses, and near a tenth part of this beautiful isle is become a repository for stagnated waters, which in the course of evaporation, impregnate the air with noxious exhalations." [*O'Conner.*] Some of these morasses are ex-

* According to Pinkerton 300.

tensive, as the bog of Allen, which contains 300,000 acres, but this and most of the others might be drained were the inhabitants industrious and enterprising. [*Pinkerton.*] But, in many respects, the climate of Ireland is more agreeable than that of England; the summers being cooler, and the winters less severe. The piercing frosts, the deep snows, and the dreadful effects of thunder and lightning, which are so frequently observed in the latter kingdom, are never experienced here.

The greatest singularity of Ireland, is the rockiness of the soil, which should seem, at first sight, against its fertility; but the contrary is the fact. Stone is so general, that there is great reason to believe the whole island is one vast rock of different strata and kinds, rising out of the sea. In general, it appears on the surface in every part of the kingdom; the flattest and most fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary and Meath, have it at no great depth, almost as much as the more barren ones. The rocks are clothed with verdure; those of lime-stone, with only a thin covering of mould, have the softest and most beautiful turf imaginable.

The rockiness of the soil in Ireland is so universal, that it predominates in every sort. One cannot use with propriety, the terms clay, loam, sand, &c.; it must be a stony clay, a stony loam, a gravelly sand.

Friable, sandy loams, dry, but fertile, are very common, and they form the best soils in Ireland, for tillage and sheep. Tipperary and Roscommon abound particularly in them. The most fertile of all are the bullock pastures of Limerick, and the banks of the Shannon in Clare, called the Corcasses. These are a mellow, putrid, friable loam.

Sand, which is so common in England, and yet more common through Spain, France, Germany and Poland, quite from Gibralter to Petersburg, is no where met with in Ireland, except in narrow slips of hillocks, upon the sea coast. [*Young.*]

Rivers and Mountains.] Few countries can be better watered by large and beautiful rivers than Ireland. The best parts of the country are on the banks of these rivers. Witness the Suir, Blackwater, the Liffey, the Boyne, the Nore, the Barrow, and part of the Shannon; they wash a scenery that can hardly be exceeded. From the rockiness of the country, however, there are few of them that have not obstructions, which are great impediments to inland navigation.

The Shannon is the most noble stream of the country: it rises in the lake of Allen, and passing through two other lakes, falls into the ocean, after a course of 170 miles. It is a deep and wide river, navigable almost through its whole course. The Barrow rises 40 miles W. of Dublin, near the source of the Boyne, and enters the sea after a course of a hundred miles. The Boyne enters the eastern sea after a course of 50 miles. The Blackwater, the Banna, and the Foyl are considerable streams. [*Pinkerton.*]

"The mountains of Ireland give to travelling an interesting variety. And, at the same time, they are not in such number as to confer the usual character of poverty, which attends them. Mangerton and the Reeks, in Kerry; the Galties in Cork; those of Mourne and Iseah

in Down, are reckoned the highest in the kingdom, particularly that called Slieu Donard, which is said to be 1050 yards in perpendicular height; Crow Patrick and Nephin, in Mayo; these are the principal in Ireland, and they are of a character in height and sublimity, which should render them the objects of every traveller's attention."

It would be difficult to enumerate the many bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which indent every part of the coast. The following are the principal: Waterford, Carlingford, and Strangford havens, the bay of Carricksergus, on the east; Lough Foyle and Lough Swilly, Ship haven, Killybegs harbour, Donegal haven, on the north; Galway haven, the mouth of the Shannon, Sherwick or St. Marywick-haven, Dingle bay, on the west; Kenmare bay or river, Bantry, Dunmanus, and Baltimore bays, Castle haven, Glendore haven, Kinsale, and Cork havens, on the south and south-east. These are the principal unbarred havens. There are likewise a great many barred havens, some of which have been much improved by acts of parliament, particularly that of Dublin.

The lakes or loughs of Ireland are those of Killarney, Erne and Neagh. The lakes of Killarney hold the first place. They are three in number. The northern, on which stands the town of Killarney, is six miles long. The upper lake is four miles, and almost surrounded with mountains. The third, or center lake, has a fall of water supplied by a circular lake, near the summit of the mountain, called the Devil's Punch-Bowl; which on account of its immense depth, and the continual overflow of water, is considered as one of the greatest curiosities of Killarney.

Lough Erne is the largest lake in Ireland, being forty miles in length, and in some parts fifteen in breadth. In this lake is an island on which stands the town of Inniskillen; the communication with the main land being preserved by two bridges. No town in Ireland can boast of such an advantageous situation for inland commerce, the lake affording it an intercourse, by water, with several counties; and this circumstance in its favour might be further improved, by cutting a canal and building locks, from Belleek to Bally Shannon, which would open a passage into the Atlantick ocean.

Lough Neagh is of an oval figure, near twenty miles in length, and about ten in breadth; and abounds with a variety of fish, and is distinguished for its petrifying qualities.

Caves and Glens.] About two miles from the city of Kilkenny, are a number of caves, which are supposed to be equal to any in the world; those of Antiparos, in the Archipelago excepted. The following description of them, being written on the spot, we shall give in his own words: "After a difficult descent of about one hundred feet, the entrance into this subterraneous world is gained. The appearance of the first cavern is uncommonly awful, and gives rise to an idea of a grand Gothick structure in ruins. The solemnity of this place is not a little increased by the gaiety of those scenes that present themselves on every side, previous to our entering it. The floor is uneven, and stones of various sizes are promiscuously dispersed upon it. The sides are composed of ragged work, in some parts covered with moss, and in others curiously frosted; and from the roof, which

is a kind of arch, several huge rocks project beyond each other, in such a manner, that they seem to threaten instant ruin. The circumference of this cave is not less than two hundred feet, and its height about fifty. Here is a small but continual dropping of water from the ceiling, and a few petrifactions resembling icicles. This place is not destitute of inhabitants, for immediately on entering into it, you are surprised with a confused noise, which is occasioned by a multitude of wild pigeons. Hence there is a passage towards the left, where, by a small ascent, a kind of hole is gained, much larger, but in form greatly resembling the mouth of an oven, which introduces the spectator to a place, where, by the help of candles, (day-light being entirely excluded) a broken and surprising scene of monstrous stones, heaped on each other, chequered with various colours, inequality of rocks over head, and an infinity of stalactical stones, presents itself. Here the traveller is threatened from a thousand vast rocks rudely piled on each other, that compose the sides, which seem bending in, and a multitude of no smaller size are pendent from the roof in the most extraordinary manner; add to this, that by one false step, he would be dashed from precipice to precipice: Indeed it would be matter of much difficulty, or rather impracticable, to walk over this apartment, had not nature, as if studious for the safety of the curious, caused branches, as it were, to shoot from the surface of the rocks, which are remarkably smooth, very unequal, and always damp. These branches are from four to six inches in length, and nearly as thick. They are useful on the summits of the rocks to prevent slipping; and in the sides are ladders, whereby to descend and ascend with tolerable facility. This astonishing and fractuous passage leads to a place far more curious than the rest. On entering into it, one is almost induced to believe one's self situated in an ancient temple, decorated with all the expense of art; yet, notwithstanding the beauty and splendour that catches the eye on every side, there is something of solemnity in the fashion of the place, which must be felt by the most inattentive spectator. The floor, in some parts is covered with a crystalline substance; the sides, in many places are incrusted with the same, wrought in a taste not unlike the Gothick style of ornament, and the top is almost entirely covered with inverted pyramids of the same elegantly white and lucid matter. At the points of these stalactical streets, are perpetually hanging drops of pellucid water; for when one falls, another succeeds. These pendent gems contribute not a little to the glory of the roof, which, when the place is properly illuminated, appears as if formed of the purest crystal. Here are three extraordinary, and beautiful congelations, which, without the assistance of a strong imagination, may be taken for an organ, altar and cross. The former, except when strictly examined, appears to be a regular work of art, and is of a considerable size: The second is of a simple form, rather long than square; and the third reaches from the floor to the roof, which must be about twenty feet. These curious figures are owing to water that falls from the upper parts of the cave to the ground, which coagulates into stone from time to time, till it acquires those forms which are now so pleasing; or to an exudation or extillation of petrifying juices out of the earth; or perhaps they partake of the nature of spar,

which is a kind of rock plant. The former appears to be the most probable supposition, as these figures, in colour and consistence, appear exactly like the icicles on the top, which are only seen from the wet parts of the caverns; and in this place, there is a great oozing of water, and a much larger number of petrifications, than in any other. When you quit this curious apartment, the guides lead you for a considerable way through winding places, until a glimmering light agreeably surprises. Here the journey, of above a quarter of a mile, through those parts is ended: But upon returning into the first cavern, the entrance into other apartments, less curious indeed, but as extensive as those we have described, offers itself. The passages into some of these are so very low that there is a necessity of creeping through them; by these we proceed until the noise of a subterraneous river is heard, but farther none have ventured."

Amongst the numerous glens* in Ireland, distinguished for particular beauty, are two in the county of Wicklow. The Glen of the Downs is a pass between two vast ridges of mountains covered with wood, which have a very noble effect; the vale is no wider than to admit the road, a small gurgling river almost by its side, and narrow slips of rocky and shrubby ground which part them: In the front, all escape seems denied by an immense conical mountain, which rises out of the glen and seems to fill it up. The scenery is of a most magnificent character.

The Dargle is a narrow vale, formed by the sides of two opposite mountains; the whole thickly spread with oak at the bottom: It is narrowed to the mere channel of the river, which tumbles from rock to rock. The extent of wood that hangs to the eye in every direction is great, the depth of the precipice immense, which, with the roar of the water, forms a scene truly interesting. In less than a quarter of a mile, the road passing through the wood leads to another point of view to the right; it is the crown of a vast projecting rock, from which you look down a precipice absolutely perpendicular, and many hundred feet deep, upon the torrent, which finds its noisy way over large fragments of rocks. At some distance below is a vast chasm in the rock, which seems torn asunder, to let the torrent through, that comes tumbling over a rocky bed far sunk in a channel embosomed in wood. In a hollow, formed of rock and wood, the torrent breaks forth from fragments of rock, and tumbles through the chasm, rocks bulging over it as if ready to fall into the channel. The shade is so thick as to exclude the heavens; all is retired and gloomy: it is a spot for melancholy to muse on.

Forests or Woods.] Tradition and history both inform us, that few countries of equal extent were better timbered than Ireland; her woods were so abundant,† as to occasion her being called by some of the ancient writers, the woody island; and their quality was of

* Glen signifies a valley or dale. *Johnson.*

† "Through every part of Ireland in which I have been, one hundred contiguous acres are not to be found, without evident signs, that they were once wood, or at least very well wooded. A vast number of the Irish names for hills, mountains, vallies, and plains, have forests, woods, groves, or trees for the signification." *Young's Tour.*

such repute as to become an article of traffick, and often employed in the most conspicuous buildings of the sister kingdom. But the natives repeatedly harassed by the inroads and encroachments of the English, frequently found an asylum in their forests. These became therefore an object of equal jealousy and vengeance, and the destroying axe generally accompanied the sword, in the joint extirpation of woods and men. For many ages it has remained in this state. The encouragement of the Dublin Society, however, and the example of many noble individuals, promises again to clothe the land with its most valuable ornaments.

Vegetable and animal Productions by Land and Sea.] These are in general similar to those in Great-Britain. Wolf-dogs (once so useful and celebrated) were perhaps peculiar to Ireland: but that species is now nearly extinct. Although the coasts of the neighbouring islands may be furnished with the same varieties of fish; yet those of Ireland have them in much greater abundance, and of a larger and more excellent quality.

Metals and Minerals.] The mines of Ireland, until the destruction of her woods, were worked to a very great extent. At present, although abundance of the various species of iron, lead, silver and copper ores are to be found in the kingdom, yet the want of capital or skill, or enterprise is such, that few are worked to any profit, if we except the great copper mines of the county of Wicklow, which are in the hands of an English company.

Considerable masses of gold have lately been found in the county of Wicklow, south of Dublin. Some pieces weigh 70 or 80 guineas. [*Pinkerton.*]

In several counties are quarries of the finest marble; those of Kerry are of various colours, green, red, yellow and white; and those of Kilkenny black and white; each of which takes a fine polish, and are calculated for all the purposes of building or ornament.

Many parts of the kingdom abound with free-stone, of various colours. Those of Ardbracken, Garrycorris, and the mountains of Wicklow and Dublin, are particularly admired, and much used in publick buildings; but the want of inland water carriage, prevents its being sent to the metropolis, in such sizes as are necessary for large columns, &c. which occasions a considerable expense for the importation of Portland stone.

Various species of coal, in abundance, are to be found in different parts of the kingdom, particularly at Kilkenny, Ballycastle, in the county of Antrim, and Tyrone. The pits of Lough Allen are probably of the most importance, as they are of such magnitude, and so happily circumstanced by situation; are of so fine a quality, and so intermixed with strata of the purest iron and other ores, as promise, with attention and capital, to be a source of great profit and advantage to the nation—placed at the head of the Shannon, which is navigable almost to the sea; were canals opened from the capital and other parts, communicating with this river, they would, in a few years, render the cutting of bogs unnecessary, save large sums now annually sent for foreign coals, and establish manufactures on different parts of these lines of the greatest value and extent.

Mineral Waters.] There are great numbers of mineral springs in this kingdom of the various classes recommended for medicinal purposes; such as the vitriolick, alkaline and absorbent, saline and purgative, sulphureous and chalybeate; of these, the most generally resorted to, from their experienced good effects, are the waters of Swanlinbar and Drumasnave in the north-west quarter, and Lucan, six miles from the capital. There are also some warm springs here; that of Mallow in the county of Cork, the warmest of them, raises Farenheit's thermometer to 68°.

Antiquities and Curiosities.] The natural curiosities of Ireland have long occupied the attention of travellers and philosophers. The Giant's Causeway being the most distinguished, we shall give the following abridged account of it from Dr. Hamilton's letters, as the most recent and accurate.

The Causeway itself is generally described as mole or quay, projecting from the base of a steep promontory, some hundred feet into the sea, and is formed of perpendicular pillars of basaltes, which stand in contact with each other, exhibiting an appearance not much unlike a solid honeycomb. The pillars are irregular prisms, of various denominations from four to eight sides; but the hexagonal columns are as numerous as all the others put together.

On a minute examination, each pillar is found to be separable into several joints, whose articulation is neat and compact beyond expression, the convex termination of one joint always meeting a concave socket in the next; besides which, the angles of one frequently shoot over those of the other, so that they are completely locked together, and can rarely be separated without a fracture of some of their parts.

The sides of each column are unequal among themselves, but the contiguous sides of adjoining columns are always of equal dimensions, so as to touch in all their parts.

Though the angles be of various magnitudes, yet the sum of the contiguous angles of adjoining pillars always makes up four right ones. Hence there are no void spaces among the basaltes, the surface of the Causeway exhibiting to view a regular and compact pavement of polygon stones.

The outside covering is soft, and of a brown colour, being the earthy parts of the stone nearly deprived of its metallick principle by the action of the air, and of the marine acid which it receives from the sea.

These are the obvious external characters of this extraordinary pile of basaltes, observed and described with wonder by every one who has seen it. But it is not here that our admiration should cease; whatever the process was by which nature produced that beautiful and curious arrangement of pillars, so conspicuous about the Giant's Causeway; the cause, far from being limited to that spot alone, appears to have extended through a large tract of country, in every direction, insomuch that many of the common quarries, for several miles around, seem to be only abortive attempts towards the production of a Giant's Causeway.

The columns of the Giant's Causeway, in the opinion of this philosopher, are all natural magnets, whose lower extremity is their

north-pole. For having stood during many ages in a perpendicular position, they must have acquired that polarity which is peculiar to all iron substances, in a similar situation; and, like natural magnets, every fragment, when broken, will have its north and south pole. And this has been found true by experience; each pillar of the Giant's Causeway, and each fragment of a pillar, which was applied near to the needle, having its attractive and repellent point.

Population.] At the commencement of the last century the numbers in Ireland were thought to be about two millions; in 1672, there were, according to Sir William Petty, no more than 1,100,000. The present number is estimated to be from 3,500,000 to 4,000,000. Pinkerton supposes there are not more 3,000,000.

Language.] The native language of the Irish is the Gaedhlick, or the Scottick, the purest and most ancient of all the Celtick dialects.

Agriculture.] The agriculture of Ireland, though greatly extended and improved within these thirty or forty years past, is still in a very backward state: For though the quantity of corn has increased to such a degree, that, instead of depending, as formerly, on a precarious importation of foreign grain, for the supply of the inhabitants, they not only have a sufficiency for home consumption, but are enabled to export large quantities; yet the mode of cultivation is very defective, the Irish not having yet introduced those improved systems of culture which have long been pursued with such advantage in England, and some other parts of Europe.

Fisheries.] Ireland has advantages in the several fisheries not enjoyed by any other country in Europe, particularly in situation, and in her numerous creeks and harbours. Her shores are stored with all the varieties of fish; her fishermen are a hardy and adventurous race; and the opportunity of curing on contiguous shores, gives them a decided superiority.

The north-west and western coasts of this kingdom, abounding in a superior degree with herrings, have long attracted the national attention and legislative encouragement. In 1786, no less than 17,188½ barrels of herrings were exported from Ireland. The same year 370 vessels, whose tonnage amounted to 15,336, were employed in this fishery.

Learning and learned Men.] The ancient Irish were a people equally learned and pious, and were resorted to by men of the most distinguished ranks of distant nations. Camden, Bede, and other writers, enumerate the benefits diffused through various parts of Europe by the numbers of learned men from Ireland, who imparted the early lights of science and of Christianity, and founded monasteries in various parts of Britain, France and Italy. It is observable, that the patron saints of several nations on the continent are acknowledged to be Irish, as were the first professors in the university of Paris, and also those placed by Alfred in his newly founded college of Oxford.

Few of the writings of the ancient Irish have reached the present times, from the long continuance of civil discord among them; such few, however, as have been published, or remain in the hands of the curious, confirm the reputation of their genius and learning. The poems of Columb-cil, several miscellaneous pieces translated by the

learned Col. Vallancy and others, but above all, the poems of Ossian, (which are unquestionably the original productions of this country) place the ancient literary fame of Ireland in the highest rank.

A long night of mental darkness, owing to various causes, succeeded this luminous period. In modern times, however, the genius of the nation, encouraged by peace and harmony, appears again in the republick of letters.

The limits of our work will not permit us to give a minute detail of Irish writers and their works, and therefore we shall present the reader with the following sketch.

Usher was a scholar, second to none these islands can boast of, unless we except Selden. Berkeley, Bishop of Cloyne, was a writer of very superior talents. He has been called the Irish Plato. His Minute Philosopher is among the standards of the English language. His essay on Vision has extended the boundaries of science. King, archbishop of Dublin, was a less fanciful, but a more consistent philosopher than Berkeley. His book upon the Origin of Evil is a master-piece. He was a man of wit, and of a sarcastick vein. Dr. Dodwell, the famous Camden professor of history in the university of Oxford, was of this country. He was a man of universal erudition, but of an enthusiastick turn of mind. Leslie of Glaslough was a man of great reading, prodigious memory, and voluminous composition. His short and easy method with the Deists, is esteemed one of the best pieces extant on the subject. Toland was a writer of opposite principles. A catholick priest originally, he became a deist in religion, and a republican in politicks. His scholarship has been arraigned by his antagonists; but he is commended by Mr. Locke as a man of parts and learning. Clayton, bishop of Clogher, wrote an essay on Spirit, an Analysis of the works of lord Bolingbroke, and other books. Mr. Molyneux* (the friend of Mr. Locke, and champion for the independence of his native country) was a philosopher and mathematician, and reckoned among the first of that scientifick age. His Dioptricks are highly commended by Dr. Halley. Dr. Helsham published an elegant and learned course of lectures, upon the several branches of physicks and mechanicks. Dr. Brian Robinson wrote an essay upon that ethereal fluid, to which Newton alludes in his queries; and also a treatise on the Animal Economy, in which he appears happily to have applied his great mathematical knowledge to the extension of medical science. Sir Hans Sloan, no less remarkable for his museum than his genius. Dr. Macbride, who has so successfully applied the theory of fixed air to practice, in the cure of the sea scurvy. Dr. Young's inquiry into the principal phenomena of sounds, is a work of great scientifick knowledge. Dr. Hamilton, whose philosophical account of the county of Antrim and its Basaltes is highly esteemed. O'Gallagher, author of an essay on the First Principles of Nature. Dr. Sullivan's treatise on the Feudal Law and Constitution of England, is making its way in the good

* This was the writer of that celebrated vindication of his country's rights, *The case of Ireland*, published at the close of the 16th century, which alarmed the English government so much, that it was ordered to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman.

opinion of the world, notwithstanding this avenue to fame had been pre-occupied by Dr. Blackstone's Commentaries. Dr. Hutcheson is the principal ethick writer of this country. Whilst a teacher of an academy in Dublin, he wrote his books upon the origin of our ideas of beauty, and on the passions. These raised his reputation so high, that he was invited to accept the moral chair in the university of Glasgow, which he filled with such celebrity, as to lay the foundation for that fame which Glasgow now enjoys as an ethick school. Two of the ablest divines of this country were dissenters from the established church, Mr. Abernethy and Dr. Leland. The sermons of the former, upon the Attributes, are held to be one of the best systems of natural theology. He was deputed by the dissenters of Ulster to address the Duke of Ormond, in a tour he made when lord lieutenant; and his Grace was afterwards heard to say, that, of all the men who ever approached him on like occasions, he was most pleased with "the young man of Antrim." And Dr. Leland's view of Deistical writers, and other works, are equally known and admired. Dr. Duchal wrote presumptive arguments in favour of Revelation, and several volumes of sermons, which have been well received. The writers who have done the nation most honour in theology, are Synge, Story, Brown, Delany, Lawson, Orr, Skelton, and Ryan, author of "The Effects of Religion on Mankind." Bishop Synge is said to have been a man of great parts and learning; he was author of the Religion of a Gentleman. Story, bishop of Kilmore, published only some occasional sermons; but in his treatise on the Priesthood, deep erudition and Christian moderation are equally conspicuous. Dr. Lawson was a most celebrated preacher. His Lectures upon Oratory, which he delivered in Trinity College, Dublin, he gave to the world himself; they shew a nice classical taste, a fine poetical vein, and throrough knowledge of the art of preaching.

Swift, whose literary character is well known, was a native of Ireland. The other principal miscellaneous writers in this kingdom, are Roscommon, author of the ingenious Essay on translated verse, and an excellent translation of Horace's Art of Poetry. Parnell, the very *deliciæ musarum*, of whose poetry, above all others, it may be said *decies repetita placebit*. Burke, on the sublime, &c. Wood, who published Ruins of Palmyra and Balbeck, and an Essay on the genius and writings of Homer. Sterne, bishop of Clogher, of a book *de visitatione infirmorum*. Sterne, that most eccentrick man, and anomalous parson, was a native of Ireland. Webb, who inquired into the beauties of painting, &c. O'Leary, author of several admired Tracts, theological and poetical. Pilkington, who published a Dictionary of Painters. Cunningham, author of several poetical pieces, particularly his natural and deservedly admired Pastorals. Preston, author of several miscellaneous poems: His "Irregular ode to the moon," claims a first rank in English poetry. Dr. Clancy, author of the *Templum Veneris*, &c. Bush, of Socrates. Johnston, author of Chrysal. Brooke, of the Farmer's Letters, Fool of Quality, Gustavus Vasa, &c. Dr. Sheridan, (in whose family, genius seems as hereditary as the name) author of several pieces for the improvement of the English language.

particularly a Pronouncing Dictionary : He also published a Life of Swift. His sons are not less celebrated : Brinsley's genius, unconfined to the praise of having rivalled the Ciceros and Demostheneses of antiquity, has added new treasures to the Drama, in his Duenna, School for Scandal, &c. ; and Charles Francis, his brother, has acquired great credit for his History of the late Revolution of Sweden. Usher, author of Clio, a very ingenious Essay on Taste. To these we might add a list of female writers : Mrs. Sheridan, Mrs. Pilkington, Mrs. Grierson, Mrs. Barber, Mrs. Davies, Mrs. Griffith, Miss Brooke, &c.

Ireland now produces a catalogue of celebrated scenick writers. Of her late writers in this line are some, whose names are not yet forgotten; and others, whose works will last as long as the English stage shall hold the mirror up to nature : Earl of Orrery, N. Tate, Concannen, John Kelly, author of the Married Philosopher, &c. Dr. Madden, of Themistocles, Jones, of the Earl of Essex, Morgan, of Philoclea, Hartson, of the Countess of Salisbury, &c. A. Philips, Mrs. Centlivre, Sir R. Steele, Farquhar, Southerne, Congreve, Brooke and Kelly.

It would perhaps be injurious to the memory of Dr. Goldsmith, to draw his poetical character from his theatrical pieces, though they are replete with the true *vis comica*. His fame must be founded upon his Traveller, Deserted Village, Vicar of Wakefield, and Citizen of the World.

Literature.] In no part of the British dominions has education been so much neglected as in Ireland; hence that turbulence and immorality which puts them at such a distance from the peaceable and moral deportment of their neighbours the Scotch. In Scotland education is conducted more happily than in any part of the English dominions.

Ireland contains but one university, which is called Trinity College. It was founded in 1591, in the reign of Elizabeth ; but its original constitution being found imperfect, in 1637 it received a new charter, and another set of statutes, compiled by archbishop Laud. This prelate made several essential alterations in the constitution of the college, the most material of which was the depriving the fellows of the election of their provost, the appointment to that important office being from thenceforth reserved to the crown. The government of the college was placed in the provost and major part of the senior fellows, from whose decisions an appeal was given to the visitors, which are the chancellor of the university, or his vice-chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin. The provost has a negative voice in all the proceedings of the board of seniors ; and to him is also committed the extraordinary power of nominating any candidate to a fellowship, (who shall have sustained the whole previous examination) even against the unanimous sense of the other examiners.

The number of fellowships fixed at present is twenty-two ; seven senior and fifteen junior. The emoluments of a senior fellowship are supposed at present to exceed 600l. yearly.

A spirit of emulation to excel in their studies is scarcely in any place of education so well supported as among the students of Dublin College, owing to the excellent institution of publick quarterly examina-

tions. Three of the four terms of the year are closed with a vacation of from three to four weeks each, and the fourth with a long vacation of four months, during which the students have time to prepare themselves for a publick examination, that begins the business of the next ensuing term. Two days are allotted to this examination, four hours each day. The examiners are the fellows under the degree of doctor and the resident masters; the examined are all the under graduates, distributed into four classes, and each class into divisions of twenty or thirty persons, according to the number of students and examiners. The subjects of examination are all the sciences in which the examined have been instructed to that time, together with the particular portion of the Greek and Latin classicks appointed to be read by each class during the term preceding the examination: A Latin theme is also demanded of each person, the second morning of the examination, on a subject given out by the examiner the evening before. The examiners are furnished with lists of the names of the persons they are to examine, with separate columns for every branch of the examination, in which columns they distinguish by technical marks the respective answering of the students, and after the examination make a report of the same to the senior lecturer. These reports, which are called *judgments*, being submitted to the inspection of the board, are read publickly, a few days after the examinations in the college hall; when they operate powerfully to the credit or disgrace of the parties concerned. Some of these judgments are of so humbling a nature, that the person who has deserved them is not accounted as having answered an examination for that time, a certain number of which examinations he must sustain before he is admitted to the first degree in arts. In Hilary term, the best answerer in each division receives a premium of books, stamped with the college arms, to the value of forty shillings: In the other three examinations, if the person, who has before obtained a premium in that year, appears to be the best answerer again, he is honoured with a certificate on vellum in lieu of a premium, which is then adjudged to the second best in the division, in order to spread the flame of emulation more widely. The effect of this judicious distribution of rewards and censures is great, almost beyond conception: Nor does any thing seem wanting to the perfection of such a system, besides a provision for augmenting the number of examiners in proportion to the daily increasing demand for them. The whole number of under graduates in Dublin College scarcely ever falls short of four hundred, (the entire number of collegiates on the books being usually above six hundred) and of the under graduates, if more than twenty be thrown into a division, it becomes difficult, if not impossible, to appreciate their merits justly within the time allotted to the examination.

Besides the twenty-two fellowships, there are, on the foundation, five royal professorships, divinity, common law, civil law, physick and Greek; besides professors of mathematicks, oriental tongues, modern languages, oratory, history, and natural philosophy. The late Sir Patrick Dunn, knight, bequeathed a considerable estate for the support of three professors in medicine, viz. theory and practice of physick, surgery and midwifery, pharmacy, and the materia medica. The

students are classed under three ranks, fellow-commoners, pensioners, and sizars. The necessary annual expense of a fellow-commoner, clothing and books included, is about 100l.; of a pensioner about 70l. A sizar receives his commons and instructions gratis. The number of these last is commonly about thirty.

As to the college edifice, it is unquestionably one of the noblest of the kind in Europe. It extends in front above 300 feet, and in depth 600, and is divided into two nearly equal squares. The principal front, opposite college-green, which was erected in 1759, is in the Corinthian order, and built of mountain-stone, as are all the buildings in the first square, the east side of which is intended to be ornamented with an elegant steeple and spire, near 150 feet high. On the north side is the refectory, or dining hall, a spacious room, with the front ornamented with Ionick pilasters. Connected with this, and projecting into the square, there is now building a chapel, whose front is intended to correspond with that of the opposite theatre. This chapel is connected with the west front by a regular range of buildings for the students; as are those on the south side, till joined with the theatre, which projects into the square. The front of this theatre is ornamented with four columns in the Corinthian order, and pediment, and is greatly admired for its delicacy and elegance: It is intended for lectures, examinations, &c. The ornaments of the inner part, particularly the stucco work, are much admired: and in ten compartments therein are placed full length portraits of their present majesties, Queen Elizabeth, (the foundress) Primate Usher, Archbishop King, Bishop Berkley, Dean Swift, Dr. Baldwin, Mr. Molyneux and Mr. Grattan.

The inner square is partly composed of plain brick buildings containing apartments for the students. The south side is entirely taken up by a superb library, supported by a piazza, erected in 1732. The inside of the library is beautiful and commodious, and embellished with busts in white marble of Plato, Socrates, Aristotle, Cicero, Demosthenes, Homer, Shakespeare, Milton, Bacon, Newton, Locke, Boyle, Swift, Usher, Earl of Pembroke, and the doctors Delany, Lawson, Gilbert and Baldwin.

Few publick bodies have been so much indebted to the magnificence of their members, as the university of Dublin has been to the two last mentioned gentlemen, who were cotemporaries for many years in the respective offices of provost, and vice-provost. Dr. Baldwin, after governing the college for the space of forty-two years, died in 1758, aged upwards of ninety. By his will he bequeathed to the college in real and personal property to the amount of near 100,000l. out of which his executors shortly after purchased, for the use of the body, two advowsons, and founded two new fellowships. Dr. Gilbert enriched the library by a bequest of his books, 12,000 volumes, chosen by himself in a long course of years for this purpose, without regard to expense, by a valuable collection of MSS. prints and medals; and lastly by 14 marble busts (enumerated above) of ancient and modern worthies, executed by the best masters at a considerable cost. The shelves of the library will contain by computation 60,000 volumes: Two thirds of them are at present full, containing, besides

Dr. Gilbert's, (which is the best) the entire libraries of the great archbishop Usher, one of the original members of this university, and about 5000 volumes, part of the collection of another fellow of the college, the late Right Reverend Dr. Palliser, archbishop of Cashel.

The printing office is a neat structure, built in the modern taste. The anatomy house is worthy of inspection, as among other curiosities it contains a set of figures in wax, representing women in every state of pregnancy. They are executed from real skeletons, and are the product of almost the whole life of an ingenious French artist. They were purchased by the late Earl Shelburne, who made a present of them to the college.

The Royal Irish Academy of Science, Polite Literature and Antiquities, was incorporated by letters patent in 1786, under the patronage of his majesty, and is composed of some of the most learned and ingenious men in the kingdom. They have published two volumes of their transactions, which consist of several curious and valuable papers, on various subjects, presented by different members; which have been received by the literary world with much applause. This institution certainly forms a new era in the history of Irish literature, and will doubtless be productive of the most distinguished consequences, in the promotion of science and general erudition amongst us.

Character and Manners.] The common people of Ireland retain too many customs of the barbarous state of society, from which they have hardly advanced. A funeral is attended by all the people of the vicinity, who express their sorrow in dismal howlings, with other barbarous ceremonies; yet they manage so that a funeral is a grand sound of amusement. Their dwellings are wretched hovels of mud, and their food is chiefly potatoes and buttermilk. Their favourite drink is usquebagh, or the water of life, an intoxicating liquor, distilled from corn, but might properly be called the water of death. Children, entirely naked, often run to gaze at the passing traveller.

[*Pinkerton.*]

"There are three races of people in Ireland, so distinct, as to strike the least attentive traveller: These are the Spanish, which are found in Kerry, and a part of Limerick and Cork, tall and thin, but well made, a long visage, dark eyes, and long black hair. The time is not remote when the Spaniards had a kind of settlement on the coast of Kerry, which seemed to be overlooked by government. There were many of them in Queen Elizabeth's reign, nor were they entirely driven out till the time of Cromwell. There is an island of Valentia on that coast, with various other names, certainly Spanish. The Scotch race is in the north, where are to be found the features which are supposed to mark that people, their accent and many of their customs. In a district near Dublin, but more particularly in the baronies of Bargie and Forth in the county of Wexford, the Saxon tongue is spoken without any mixture of the Irish, and the people have a variety of customs, which distinguish them from their neighbours. The Milesian race of Irish, which may be called native, are scattered over the kingdom, but chiefly found in Connaught and Munster; a

few considerable families, whose genealogy is undoubted, remain, but none of them with considerable posessions, except the O'Briens, and Mr. O'Neil. O'Harra and M'Dermot are great names in Connaught, and O'Donnohue a considerable one in Kerry ; but the O'Connors and O'Drischals in Corke, claim an origin prior in Ireland to any of the Milesian race.

" The only divisions which a traveller, who passed through the kingdom without any residence, could make, would be into people of considerable fortune and mob. The intermediate division of the scale, so numerous and respectable in England, would hardly attract the least notice in Ireland. A residence in the kingdom convinces one, however, that there is another class, in general of small fortune ; country gentlemen and renters of land. The manners, habits and customs of people of considerable fortune, are much the same every where, at least there is very little difference between England and Ireland. It is among the common people one must look for those traits by which we discriminate a national character. The circumstances which struck me most in the common Irish, were vivacity, and a great and eloquent volubility of speech. They are infinitely more cheerful and lively than any thing we commonly see in England. Lazy at *work*, but so spiritedly active at *play*, that at *hurling*, and other manly exercises, they shew the greatest feats of agility. Their love of society is as remarkable as their curiosity is insatiable ; and their hospitality to all comers, be their own poverty ever so pinching, has too much merit to be forgotten. Pleased to enjoyment with a joke, or witty repartee, they will repeat it with such expression, that the laugh will be universal. Warm friends and revengeful enemies ; they are inviolable in their secrecy, and inevitable in their resentment, with such a notion of honour, that neither threat nor reward would induce them to betray the secret or person of a man, although that man were an oppressor. Hard drinkers and quarrelsome ; but civil, submissive and obedient. Dancing is so universal among them, that there are every where itinerant dancing-masters to whom the cotters pay six pence a quarter for teaching their families. Many strokes in their character are evidently to be ascribed to the extreme oppression under which they live. If they are as great thieves and liars as they are reported, it is most certainly owing to this cause.

" But I must now come to another class of people. This is the class of little country gentlemen, tenants who drink their claret by means of profit rents ; jobbers in farms ; bucks ; your fellows with round hats, edged with gold, who hunt in the day, get drunk in the evening, and fight the next morning. I shall not dwell on a subject so perfectly disagreeable, but remark that these are the men among whom drinking, duelling, ravishing, &c. &c. are found as in their native soil ; once to a degree that made them the pest of society ; they are growing better, but even now, one or two of them got by accident (where they have no business) into better company, are sufficient to *derange* the pleasures that result from a liberal conversation. A new spirit, new fashions, new modes of politeness, exhibited by the higher ranks, are imitated by the lower, which will, it is to be hoped, put an end to this race of beings ; and either drive their sons and

cousins into the army or navy, or sink them into plain tradesmen or farmers, like those in England, where it is common to see men with much greater property without pretending to be gentlemen. This class are very different from what they were twenty years ago, and are still improving." [*Young.*]

Religion.] The established religion is that of the church of England. There are four archbishops and eighteen bishops. The four archbishopricks, are Armagh, Dublin, Cashal and Tuam; and the eighteen bishopricks are Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Killaloe, Kilmore, Leighlin and Ferns, Limerick, Meath, Ossory, Raphoe and Waterford.

The dissenters are almost as various here as in England, two thirds of the people are Roman Catholicks, and half the rest are Presbyterians. Besides these there are Quakers, Anabaptists, Moravians and Methodists, all of whom are tolerated by law.

Constitution and Laws.] Ireland is at present a distinct independent kingdom, and its imperial crown is inseparably annexed, by an Irish act of parliament, to that of Great-Britain. From the time of the accession of the sovereignty of Ireland, to the kings of England, until the tenth year of the reign of Henry VII. the mode of enacting laws within the English pale in the parliaments of this country, was nearly the same as in England; the king's viceroy summoning and holding parliaments at pleasure, in which were enacted such statutes as were then thought expedient or necessary. But an ill use (as it was then termed) having been made of this power, a set of acts were passed in the reign of Henry VII. one of which, viz. 10 Henry VII. c. 4. provided, "That no parliament be hereafter summoned or holden, unless the king's lieutenant then being, shall previously certify to the king, under the great seal of Ireland, the causes and considerations thereof, and the articles proposed to be passed therein; and that after the king in his council of England, shall have considered and approved, or altered said acts, or any of them, and certified them back, under the great seal of England, and shall have given license to summon and hold a parliament, then the same shall be summoned and held, and the said acts so certified, and none other, shall be therein introduced, passed or rejected."

By another law, viz. 10 Henry VII. c. 22. it was enacted that "all statutes before that time passed in England, should be of force in Ireland." From the making of which law, all subsequent English statutes were absurdly supposed to have bound Ireland, if therein named, or included under general words.

About the beginning of the reign of George I. in consequence of its being a question, whether England had a right to make laws to bind this country, which was ready to be disputed by the Irish, an act was passed in the British parliament (6th of George I. c. 5.) whereby it was declared, "that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be subordinate to, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great-Britain, as being inseparably annexed and united thereto, and that the king's majesty, with the consent of the lords and commons of Great-Britain in parliament assembled, hath power to make laws to bind Ireland."

However, this illiberal and unjust usurpation of the legislative rights of Ireland was of short duration. For after the emancipation of the trade of this kingdom, in the year 1779, the 10th statute of Henry VII. c. 4. before mentioned, was very much altered, by an act passed in the Irish parliament, in the twenty-first and twenty-second years of his present majesty, George III. &c. namely, statute the twenty-first and twenty-second George III. cap. 47. By which it is enacted, "That the lord-lieutenant and council of Ireland shall certify under the great seal of the same, to his majesty, without addition, alteration, &c. all such bills, and no other, as the parliament of Ireland shall judge to be expedient; that all bills so certified and returned back again under the great seal of England, without any alteration whatever, and none other, shall pass in the Irish parliament." "And that no bill shall be certified into Great-Britain, as a cause or consideration of holding any parliament. Provided always, that no parliament be summoned or holden, until a license be obtained from his majesty for that purpose." And this act of the Irish legislature was followed by a declaration of rights, under the form of an address to the throne, not a little strengthened by the spirited and united efforts of the whole Irish nation, who with one voice, and with the very arms in their hands with which they defended themselves from the enemies of the empire, when destitute of their own established forces, who at that time were bleeding in every quarter of the world in the support of the British standard, firmly demanded and insisted on, from the British parliament, the restoration of those rights which the tyrannick oppression of their predecessors had wrested from them. While, on the other hand, that senate restored to the Irish their legislative, as they had before done their commercial rights, not only repealing the 6th Geo. I. c. 5. but passing an act renunciatory of their former groundless claim to what they now declared to be the rights of their hitherto oppressed and injured neighbours.

Before the late union with Great-Britain, the Irish nation was governed by parliaments of its own, which consisted of the king in his legislative capacity, the lords spiritual (22) and lords temporal, (165) who, together with the king, or his viceroy, sat in one house; and the commons (300) composed of knights, citizens and burgesses, elected by the people, who sat in another; and these, in conjunction, formed the Irish parliament, which alone was empowered with, alone exerted, and alone had right to exert the privilege of making new, or altering or repealing existing laws for the government of this realm. The manner of proceeding from the first introduction of a bill into either house, till it was transmitted to England by the lord-lieutenant, in order to receive the royal assent, was nearly the same with that of the British parliament.

In respect of duration, the parliaments of the two countries differed; the parliament of Ireland was octennial; and before the beginning of the reign of his present majesty, was perpetual: Whereas, that of Great-Britain is septennial.

The common law of England was adopted here by the council of Lismore, in the reign of Henry II. and ever since has been the common law of Ireland; between which and that of England there is

hardly any difference, except where the alterations made in it by the statute law of either country, may have produced a slight variation. But, to speak generally, the principles of both are the same; and the decisions of the courts at Westminster are of high authority in guiding the determinations (in similar cases) of the king's courts at Dublin, which, in number, superiority, and extent of jurisdiction, are similar to those at Westminster, some few and trivial deviations, in the peculiar practice of each court, excepted.

There are likewise ecclesiastical and admiralty courts here, as in England, for the general distribution of justice. The kingdom is divided into five circuits; the principal county towns in each of these are visited twice a year by two of the twelve judges who sit as judges of assize and gaol delivery alternately, for the hearing and deciding of suits by *Nisi Prius*, and for the trial of prisoners.

Inland Navigation.] The important consequences arising from the extension of inland water-carriage seem now to be generally felt and promoted in Ireland.

Among the canals completed, or now prosecuting in Ireland, the most distinguished in consequence and extent, is that called the Grand Canal. This was undertaken in the year 1756, under the direction of parliament and the navigation board, and different grants were made from time to time for carrying it on. But after some years it was observed that little progress was made, which led the legislature to hold out encouragement to private subscribers to undertake the work, by granting an aid of one sixth part of the sum which should be expended. Accordingly, several noblemen and gentlemen subscribed a capital of one hundred thousand pounds, and were incorporated by parliament in 1772, by the name of the company of Undertakers of the Grand Canal, who were put in possession of all the works which had been previously done at the publick expense, and invested with ample powers for the better carrying into execution this important object. After combating a variety of difficulties, enlarging their capital, raising further aids by loan, &c. the line was completed from Dublin to Monastereven in 1786.

This noble canal proceeds from the west end of the metropolis, passes through Sallins, Roberts-town, and Rathangan, and in the neighbourhood of several other towns and villages. It crosses the Liffey on an aqueduct bridge of seven arches, (constructed on the most ingenious and permanent principles); pierces the hill of Downings several hundred yards; runs through a great part of the Bog of Allen, and falls into the river Barrow at Monastereven, after a course of 31¼ miles. It is navigated by boats of from 30 to 50 tons burthen; and supplied with water throughout the different levels from numerous streams of rivers, viz. the Black-wood-mill, Loughlewhelnan, Brockass, and Fouraunfan streams on the north; and on the south by the Great Bog, Miller's-town and Donore streams, and the Mill-town river, which is made navigable four miles from the great trunk, and terminates near the Curragh; but that which supplies the capital with such abundance of most excellent water, is the Great Morrell, taken in at the fifteenth lock, about twelve miles from Dublin. There are 26 locks on this navigation, (6 double and 20 single) the falls in which

vary from 4 feet 3 inches, to 19 feet 7 inches. The summit level is 202 feet 4 inches above the Jame's street harbour ; 82 feet 9 inches above the river Barrow at Monastereven ; and 265 feet above the tide in the Liffey at Dublin.

From this canal a collateral cut to Naas is completed by the Kildar company. A canal is extended from Newry to the sea. The parliament have also granted considerable sums for the canals of Lagan, Dromreagh, Blackwater, and for improving the navigation of the Shannon, Barrow and Lee, but the democratick insurrections in the country, and other difficulties have much impeded these useful enterprizes. [*Pinkerton.*]

Dublin Society.] Ireland has the honour of having formed the first agricultural society in Europe, and has continued to maintain the precedence of its merit unrivalled. This society originated about the year 1731, and was supported solely by the voluntary subscriptions of its members, amounting to about 1000l. per annum ; with this fund, and the animating zeal of several individuals, particularly Dr. Madan and Mr. Prior, (two of the most valuable patriots which any country has produced) they communicated many of those benefits to which the present improving appearance of the nation is in a great degree indebted. For several years past, the legislature have given them the most liberal grants, which have enabled them to extend their views as well to arts and manufactures as to agriculture. The school for portrait, ornament and architect drawing, under the direction of this society, has proved a prolifick nursery for the fine arts ; having produced a number of geniuses, the boast and ornament of their country, and the admiration of foreigners.

Trade and Manufactures.] This subject has at length become of consequence to the people of Ireland. Through the concurrence of various favourable circumstances, the revolution in America, and the embarassment of Great-Britain, Providence seconding the courage and virtue of the people, broke the chains, which trading jealousy and national injustice had so long imposed upon this country. Whilst the sun of commerce and power in Venice, in Genoa, in Holland, the Netherlands and other countries, rose and set, the kingdom of Ireland, more fruitful in soil, more powerful in people, more fortunate in situation, and more strong in natural resources, was compelled for several hundred years to look on these events a joyless and indifferent spectator. During that long night of misery to Ireland, were her fields stained with the blood of insurrections, rapidly treading on the heels of each other ; raised either by a sense of oppression, or fomented by the interested artifices of English ministers, and their creatures. These produced perpetual change, and consequent insecurity of property, and confiscation being often the object, was generally the effect of excited disorder. In a country so distracted, manufactures could not take root, and commerce could not flourish. These are the offspring of peace and settlement, which were here experienced but for short intervals till the revolution.

From the latter part of the reign of William III. to the late emancipation of the trade of Ireland in 1779, this unfortunate country ex-

perienced a series of the most wanton and impolitick restrictions* from England, equally injurious to the intercourse and prosperity of both.

In 1698, the lords and commons of England addressed king William, to employ his influence in Ireland to "suppress the woollen manufacture therein;" to which he answered the lords, "that his majesty will take care to do what their lordships have desired;" and to the commons he answered, "I shall do all that in me lies to discourage the woollen trade in Ireland." And indeed so successfully was this baneful influence employed upon the legislature, that they passed an act laying heavy duties on the export of their woollens to England, where a law was also made in the following year, prohibiting exports from Ireland to other countries; so that between the two legislatures the manufacture was as completely annihilated as it could be by law.

The immediate consequences to Ireland shewed the value of what she lost; many thousand manufacturers were obliged to leave the kingdom for want of employment; many parts of the southern and western counties were so depopulated, that they have not yet recovered a reasonable number of inhabitants; and the whole kingdom was reduced to the greatest poverty and distress.

In consideration of this loss, the Irish were to get full and unrivalled possession of the linen trade; as if one manufacture was sufficient for the employment of a whole nation, especially where a large majority of it were totally ignorant of the process or habits of the trade, and possessing but little of the necessary material; whilst in the other, the hands were formed even to enviable perfection, and the materials were possessed at home in abundance. The Irish women were to become spinners for the English manufacturers, and the richer were to become the clothiers for the poorer nation.

Several years had elapsed before the promised encouragement to the linen was granted; and so wretched a state was it in, in the year 1700, that the exports of linen amounted in value but to 14,112l.

The people of Ireland, deprived as we have mentioned, of the woollen were obliged to confine their sole attention to the manufacture of linen. As with individuals, so with nations; when the publick mind is exclusively bent to one object, it cannot avoid succeeding in its pursuit to a considerable degree. The province of Ulster was the first wherein it was extended; here it was actively taken up by the industrious descendants of the hardy Scotch colonies settled therein, and still it continues the principal seat of the manufacture. The other provinces have but a small comparative share, although that of Connaught has been making considerable advances in the coarser branches for some years.

To give the reader a more perfect idea of the progress and importance of this manufacture, we have annexed a view of the quantities exported at different periods; and, as the export of linen yarn is in some degree connected with the subject, we have also given a similar view of it.

* Between the years 1740 and 1779, there were no less than twenty-four embargoes in Ireland, one of which lasted three years.

EXPORTS.

Years.	Linen cloth. Yards.	Linen yarn. Cwt.	qrs.	lb.
1713	1,819,816¼	11,802	2	17
1723	4,378,545	15,672	3	17
1733	4,777,076	13,357	2	21
1743	6,058,041	14,169	1	10
1753	10,493,858	23,238		4
1763	16,013,105	34,468		7
1773	18,450,700½	28,078	3	25
1783	16,039,705½	35,812	3	23
1784	24,961,898	33,013	2	15
1785	26,677,647	28,842	1	5
1786	28,168,866	31,062		20
1787	30,728,728	31,049	2	0

The lawn, cambrick, and other finer branches of manufacture, most of them are in a flourishing state. The annual produce of the linen manufacture is reckoned at 2,000,000l. sterling per annum. [*Pinkerton.*]

The woollen manufacture has been in possession of this country from a very early period; but the restrictions, under which it had laboured for above a century, have greatly confined its extent. Considering, however, the number of difficulties under which the manufacture struggles, it is surprising to observe the pitch of excellence to which it has arrived. The best broadcloths of Ireland are little inferior to the English, and her druggets are much admired. Her blanketing and flannels are in high esteem, and the worsted branches have been brought to great perfection, and many become fit articles for extensive exportation.

Another branch of trade is in the produce of cattle, which brings very large returns into this kingdom. The exports in this line consist of beef, butter, cheese, candles, tallow, hides, (tanned and untanned) bullocks and cows, hogs, bacon, hog's lard and pork. The last article is one of the most increasing and valuable exports; it is the principal among the very few resources of the numerous poor peasantry, as it is almost the only article which brings them money; and being reared without expense, trouble, or attention, the returns must be considered as so much clear gain to the nation. The average export for five years, ending 1767, was about 40,000 barrels. The like ending 1774, was 46,924 barrels. The like, ending 1782, was 87,085, and in the year 1787 it rose to 101,859.

The silk manufacture is of great importance, but principally confined to the metropolis, probably from its connection with the fashions. Several branches have been brought to the highest perfection; their damasks and lutestrings are excellent; and their handkerchiefs are not only superior to English, but are also unrivalled by any nation in Europe. The mixed goods, or tabinets and poplins, have been long celebrated.

The cotton manufacture is of late introduction, but yet has arrived at great perfection and considerable extent. Large sums have been expended on the erection of noble mills and machinery.

The glass manufacture has arisen to considerable consequence within a few years.

The manufacture of paper has been advancing by silent but steady steps to great improvement and importance; and from the number of hands it employs, and the small proportion the value of the materials bears to the labour, it is certainly of the first consequence to a manufacturing nation.

These are some of the principal manufactures of Ireland; most of which appear, from the best evidence, to be daily increasing in extent and improvement.

Having enumerated the leading manufactures, exports of this kingdom, &c. it is necessary to observe on the principal articles which compose her imports; these generally come from or through Great-Britain, and consist of her manufactures of various denominations, woollens, silks, cottons, mixed goods, haberdashery, manufactures of iron, steel and other metals, groceries, hops, bark, earthern ware, beer, coals, and an infinite number of other articles; besides the produce of the East and West-Indies to a considerable amount. The table annexed will show the comparative value of this intercourse; but whilst it states the balance to be generally in favour of Ireland, there must be thrown into the opposite scale the remittances to absentees, interest of money lent on Irish estates, pensions, freight and insurance of ships, remittances to regiments on the Irish establishment, &c. &c. amounting in all to above a million and a half, or perhaps two millions sterling.

The annexed table is extracted from the Irish Custom-House accounts.

Value of Goods exported to and imported from Great-Britain, at different Periods.

Years.	Exports.			Imports.		
1700	£814,745	15	0	£792,473	3	2¼
1705	516,771	17	0¼	497,794	1	9½
1710	712,497	2	6½	554,247	12	4
1715	1,529,765	14	1¾	972,688	9	11½
1720	1,038,381	7	1½	891,678	5	6½
1725	1,053,782	13	11¼	819,761	13	3¼
1730	992,832	7	0½	929,896	1	2
1735	1,248,410	16	0¾	935,849	8	9½
1740	1,259,853	6	8⅞	849,678	7	10½
1745	1,340,930	8	9⅛	949,603	15	10
1750	1,069,864	1	2⅝	920,340	17	0¾
1755	1,312,176	2	6¾	1,039,911	10	4⅛
1760	1,450,757	8	6⅞	1,094,752	12	11¼
1765	1,693,197	5	7	1,439,969	4	8⅛
1770	2,408,838	12	2⅛	1,878,599	6	11
1775	2,379,858	9	8¼	1,739,543	18	4½
1780	2,384,898	16	7⅛	1,576,635	13	5¼

Years.	Exports.			Imports.		
1781	2,187,406	15	$0\frac{1}{4}$	2,432,417	13	10
1782	2,709,766	18	$1\frac{1}{4}$	2,277,946	10	$8\frac{1}{4}$
1783	1,989,290	6	9	2,320,455	18	$7\frac{1}{4}$
1784	2,337,273	11	$10\frac{3}{4}$	2,400,456	16	$4\frac{1}{4}$
1785	2,764,753	1	$11\frac{1}{2}$	1,949,074	0	$11\frac{1}{2}$
1786	3,039,531	3	$5\frac{1}{4}$	2,346,024	1	$6\frac{3}{4}$
1787	3,299,523	12	$10\frac{1}{4}$	2,326,756	19	$2\frac{1}{8}$

Since the opening of the Irish trade, the intercourse with the United States of America, the British colonies, and also to the West-India islands, has been an accession of considerable consequence. To the latter, the exports are principally composed of produce, and manufactures of various sorts, and is a trade that promises to increase to a great extent, if not restrained by the illiberal construction of the navigation laws, which prevent their sending the redundancy of their imports into the English markets. The trade to the British colonies is composed of similar exports as to the islands, and will probably rise to equal importance ; but with the American States it is expected to be much superior.

The trade to Portugal is one of the most important to the kingdom, and constantly produces a considerable balance in her favour : In some years the export of butter alone has been equal to the whole of her imports from that country, which principally consist of wine, salt, fruit, oil, pot-ash and cork ; for which are sent in return, butter, beef, pork, tallow, cheese, shoes, new and old drapery and fine linens, &c.

The trade with Spain consists of nearly the same articles of import and export as to Portugal.

The exports to France, before the late revolution, generally consisted of beef, butter, pork, hides, candles, tallow, wheat, flour, biscuit, linens, woollens, shoes, and sundry other manufactures ; and the imports of wine, brandy, paper, capers, oil, cork, salt, gloves, cambrick, &c. The balance of this trade, though fluctuating, has been generally in favour of Ireland.

The trade with Holland and Flanders consists principally of an export of beef, butter, hides, tallow, linen, new and old drapery, flannels, frize, woollen yarn, &c. ; and the imports of flax, thread, linseed and linseed oil, paper, garden seeds, Geneva, snuff, drugs, dying stuffs, &c.

The trade with the east country, including Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Russia and the Baltick, consists of an export nearly similar to the preceding, and the imports, of iron, timber, deals, tar, train oil, hemp, flax, bark, &c.

Coins.] The coins of Ireland are at present of the same denominations and the like fabrick with those of England, only an English shilling passes in Ireland for thirteen pence, and so in proportion in the other coins.

Bank of Ireland.] The subscribers to the national bank were incorporated by charter in 1783, by the name of the Governour and Company of the Bank of Ireland, and proceeded to business on the 25th June, in the same year, upon a capital stock of 600,000l. which consisted of 4 per cent. government debentures deposited at par.

These debentures were cancelled by government, agreeably to act of parliament, and an annuity at the rate of 4 per cent. granted in lieu thereof. In addition to their capital they borrowed 60,000l. previous to the opening of the bank, for which they issued debentures at 5 per cent; and in 1784 a further sum of 40,000l. on the like terms.

In this bank are deposited certain monies received into his majesty's treasury; and by an act passed in 1784, all money lodged in the courts of chancery and exchequer are also to be deposited in the bank.

The governours, directors, and officers are annually elected in the month of April. Of the 15 directors 5 must be new. The qualification of the governour is the actual possession of 5000l. stock; of the deputy-governour 3000l. and of each of the directors 2000l.

Under the direction of this company, an office was opened in June 1787, for purchasing light guineas and half guineas, on terms so highly advantageous to the publick, that it has proved of the utmost utility.

Military Strength.] The military establishment of Ireland in 1787 consisted of

Four regiments of dragoon guards	684 men
Eight regiments of dragoons	1,416
Twenty-eight regiments of foot	13,132
Total	15,232

To this should be added the ordnance, which was on a distinct establishment, and composed of 6 companies, of 50 men each, making in the whole 300.

Of this force, Great-Britain might employ seven regiments (or 3283 men) on foreign service, at the expense of Ireland; but, during the war with the United States, the principal part of the army was withdrawn, so that in the year 1777, there were little more than 3000 men left for the protection of the kingdom.

Cities, publick Edifices, &c.] Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is, in extent, beauty, and number of inhabitants, the second city in the British dominions, and the fifth in Europe. It is situated on the east side of the island, on the river Liffey, near its junction with the sea, in latitude 53° 20′, and is about 270 miles N. W. of London.

Dublin is equal in magnitude to above one fourth of London. It is two miles and a half long, and its greatest breadth is nearly equal; so that the circumference may be about eight Irish miles. It lies mostly on a level, and is rather low, in respect to the adjacent country; a great part of the old town being built on a marshy foundation. Its increase, these last twenty years, is almost incredible: In the year 1754 the return of houses was 12,857, and in 1766 it was 13,194. It now contains, at a moderate computation, about 15,000 houses, mostly full of inhabitants, who are estimated at 150,000, and is daily increasing both in extent and population.

Dublin would have had a commodious and secure station for shipping if the entrance of the bay had not been so choked up, that ves-

sels of great burthen cannot come over the bar: But the defects of the harbour are generally remedied, by a prodigious work of stone and piles of wood, extending about three miles into the bay.

At the end of the piles, there is a light-house erected, curiously constructed of hewn stone. The approach to the city from the harbour exhibits a most beautiful prospect. It is a spacious amphitheatre, bounded mostly by a high shore; and the country all round is interspersed with white villas, which have a pleasing effect.

The river Liffey, though navigable for ships of a moderate burthen, as far as the old custom-house, is but narrow, the breadth being in some parts 250 feet, in others only 140. It runs for two miles almost straight through the city, dividing it nearly into two equal parts, forming spacious quays, walled in the whole length of the city. At the breadth of a wide street from the river on each side, the houses are built opposite each other, which has a grand effect. Over the Liffey are erected five bridges; two of them, Essex and the Queen's, are elegant structures; the other three, Ormond, Arran and Bloody bridges, have but little to recommend them, besides affording the convenience of passage.

This city is the see of an archbishop, and sends two members to parliament; and the university sends two more. Besides two cathedrals, (Christ's and St. Patrick's) there are eighteen parish churches, six meeting-houses for Presbyterians, one for Baptists, three for Methodists, one for Moravians, two for Quakers; fifteen Roman Catholick chapels, three nunneries, one Jewish synagogue, and fourteen hospitals: The linen and yarn halls; fifteen publick markets for every species of provisions, of which Ormond market is perhaps the first in Europe; and seven publick prisons. The four courts, consisting of the High Court of Chancery, King's-bench, Common pleas, and Exchequer, are held here, as also Courts of Prerogative, Delegate, Consistory, and Admiralty; several halls for corporations, &c. one theatre, seven coffee-houses, besides a number of elegant hotels for the accommodation of foreigners.

The east end of the town on each side of the Liffey is extending fast, by several new streets, on a noble scale; and when the bridge, which is in contemplation for uniting the line from Grafton to Sackville-street is built, and the various avenues intended to be opened thereto are completed, Dublin will perhaps be unrivalled in Europe.

The municipal government of the city of Dublin is vested in a lord mayor, 24 aldermen, 2 sheriffs, and 97 common council, who are elected by the several corporations. The various departments of its police are partly in the hands of this corporation, and partly in several boards, instituted for the purpose within these few years. In the former is the care of the water, which they are to see carefully and constantly distributed to every part of the metropolis, from two principal sources, one from a bason at the west end of the city, on the south side of James'-street, which affords a noble head of water, being chiefly supplied by the Grand Canal; and the other from the Liffey at Island-bridge, where a forcing engine is employed to raise the water to a proper level for the supply of the north side of the city:

From these sources it is supplied, in a degree, perhaps, equal to any other in Europe.

Cork is the second city in the kingdom, and capital of the province of Munster, governed by a mayor and other magistrates, and sends two members to parliament. It is seated on an island in the river Lea, which, branching into two arms about a mile above the site of the city, one runs on its north and the other on its south side, over which are placed neat bridges, by which the communication with the opposite continents is preserved. The island is intersected by several canals, either natural or artificial, which, being banked in, bring up ships almost to every street, and greatly facilitate their trade. The situation of the city is partly on a rising ground on the north and south, and the middle on a level; it is three miles long and near two broad, and is uncommonly populous for its extent, containing above 70,000 inhabitants. [*Pink.*] Formerly the streets and houses were as narrow and inelegant as those of equal antiquity in Ireland; but the publick and private buildings of late years are in the style of modern elegance, and alike declare the improved taste, spirit and riches of the inhabitants, who have been at all times distinguished for their liberal hospitality and agreeable suavity of manners. Here are seven Protestant churches, eleven Catholick chapels, and four dissenting meeting-houses, belonging to Presbyterians, Baptists, Quakers, and French Protestants. The Custom-house, Exchange, Market-house, County Court-house, and the Theatre, are handsome buildings; and the charity schools and similar foundations are numerous and well supported; upon the whole, this city very justly ranks as the second in the kingdom, and is 124 miles S. W. of Dublin. The trade of Cork is very considerable, and its exports are in some articles much superior to those of the metropolis. In time of war it is the great market for provisions, from whence the British navy draw an inexhaustible supply. The other articles of export consist of corn, wool, hay, woollen yarn, camblets, serges, hides, butter, candles, soap, tallow, herrings, &c. Wool-combing is carried on to such extent in this country, that half the wool of Ireland is said to be combed here; the manufactures consist of camblets, serges, ratteens, frizes, druggets, narrow cloths, coarse linen, stockings, &c.; but when agriculture and manufactures are more widely diffused through this fruitful province, their trade will be more valuable, as being derived from the enlarged industry and ingenuity of the people.

Limerick is situated on the Shannon, one of the noblest rivers which any European island can boast, and placed in one of the most fertile counties of the kingdom. It is a flourishing city, and composed of what is called the Irish and English town. The latter stands upon the south part of a piece of ground three miles in circumference, called the King's Island, formed by the Shannon, which divides itself about half a mile above the city. The Irish town is on the south or opposite side of the river, and both are united by an old bridge, called Baal's. These towns, in their ancient state, consisted but of one wide well built street, cut at right angles by many narrow lanes. At present the city is large, populous and regular, three miles in circumference: It is supposed to contain above 50,000 inhabitants,

and is 92 miles S. W. by W. from Dublin, and about 60 miles from the sea. It is governed by a mayor, sheriffs and other magistrates; is a city and county in itself, and sends two members to parliament. Its trade is considerable, particularly in the export of beef, pork, butter, hides, rape-seed, &c. &c. and the manufactures of linen, woollen and paper are carried on to some extent; that of gloves is no less celebrated abroad than at home, for their uncommon delicacy and beauty.

Belfast, though a few years since of inferior or second rate consequence, now ranks among the first towns in Ireland, and may be reckoned a Scottish colony; to which importance it has arrived by the most rapid progress, and for which it is indebted to the enterprizing activity of its merchants, the uncommon industry of its people, and from its situation, being the medium through which are conveyed the imports and exports of a populous and great manufacturing country. Belfast is in the county of Antrim, on the river Lagan, at its junction with the Lough of Belfast; is supposed to contain 18,000 inhabitants, [*Pinkerton.*] governed by a sovereign and 12 burgesses; sends two members two parliament, and is 80 miles north from Dublin. The streets are broad, the houses generally modern and well built. The Exchange, Hall, and other publick buildings are suited to the purposes of their erection, and worthy the consequence of the town. Their trade has risen (and is daily rising) into considerable value; the exports of linen, manufactured cotton, glass, corn, beef, pork, and sundry other articles, are great; and their various manufactures form some of the most important in the kingdom.

Waterford stands on the south side of the Suire, a broad and rapid river, without any bridge, and about four miles and a half from its junction with the Nore and Barrow, all which, united, form the harbour. This city is about 8 miles from the sea, and 74 miles S. S. W. from Dublin; it is a most convenient port for foreign traffick, and its harbour runs almost 12 miles up the country, nearly in a straight line, all the way deep and clear. This city is the capital of the county of the same name, governed by a mayor and other magistrates, and sends two members to parliament; there are a cathedral of great extent and elegance, three churches, (one of which is extremely beautiful and spacious, and rivals any which even the capital can boast) four Catholick chapels, and places of worship for French Protestants, Presbyterians, Quakers, and Baptists. The bishop's palace is a fine building of hewn stone, with two fronts. The Court-house, Exchange, Custom-house and Barracks, are neat, handsome buildings, and the new Theatre and Assembly Rooms are fitted up in a very fine taste. There are several charity schools and humane foundations, well supported. The white glass and other manufactures of Waterford are in a flourishing state; and its export of beef, pork, butter, hides, tallow, corn, &c. is considerable; to which the extensive inland navigation it has by means of the Nore, Suire and Barrow, greatly contributes; as it also does to the import trade, from the demand for foreign commodities in the several rich counties and flourishing towns, through which these rivers flow. The trade it carries on with Newfoundland, and of which it enjoys the principal share, is of the utmost impor-

tance, as upwards of seventy sail of shipping are employed in the supply of the banks with provisions, &c. and return from thence and the West-Indies with fish, rum, sugar, cotton, &c. Some idea of the provision trade here may be formed by the vast number of large hogs killed, which amount to upwards of 3000 per week, for many weeks together; and of butter there have been exported from hence from 60 to 80,000 casks a year. The inhabitants are supposed to exceed 30,000. [*Pinkerton.*]

Kilkenny is one of the best inland cities in this kingdom, pleasantly situated on the river Nore, distant 57 miles south-west from Dublin. It is governed by a mayor, recorder, and aldermen. It comprises two towns, Kilkenny, so called, and Irish-town, each of which sends two members to parliament; and, together, are computed to contain about 20,000 inhabitants. It has two churches and several Catholick chapels. The cathedral stands in a sequestered situation, is a venerable Gothick pile, and built above five hundred years ago; close to it is one of those remarkable round towers, which have so much engaged the attention of travellers. There are two very fine bridges of cut marble over the Nore; John's, particularly, which consists of three elliptick arches, is beautifully proportioned, and might serve as a model of lightness and elegance. The only manufactures of consequence in this city are coarse woollen cloths, blankets of extraordinary fine quality, and considerable quantities of starch; in the neighbourhood also are manufactured those beautiful chimney pieces, which are known all over the kingdom by the name of Kilkenny marble; which are cut and polished by water; a mill (the only one of its kind probably in Europe) having been invented by the late ingenious Mr. Colles for this purpose.

Galway is the most considerable town in Connaught, and seated on the noble bay of Galway, on the Western Ocean, 120 miles west from Dublin. It has but one parish church, an exchange, three nunneries, three monasteries, a charter school, and an hospital. It is a county in itself, governed by a mayor or his deputy, two sheriffs, and a recorder, and sends two members to parliament. The town is surrounded with walls, and including its suburbs, contains about 12,000 inhabitants. The salmon and herring fisheries are carried on here with great spirit, and employ several hundred boats; the quantity of kelp manufactured and exported is considerable.

Londonderry is 115 miles N. N. W. from Dublin, in the province of Ulster, and capital of the county of the same name; sends two members to parliament, and is governed by a mayor and other magistrates. It is seated on an eminence or declivity of an oval form, being almost a peninsula at the bottom, and on a narrow part of Lough Foyle, which surrounds two thirds or more of the eminence, and by which they have an open navigation to the sea on the very north of the kingdom. A bridge was built over this river in 1791, which is 1068 feet long. This situation is not more advantageous than beautiful: The city is extremely well built and neat, and a general appearance of order, industry and sobriety prevails throughout. Its trade is considerable; the exports consist of linen, linen yarn, grain, &c. and their exertions in the Greenland and other fisheries,

have been successful. The ground plot of this city is the property of the corporations of London, from which circumstance it has compounded its former name, which was Derry.

The other considerable towns in Ireland are, Newry in the county of Down, 50 miles N. from Dublin, and seated on the Newry Water, which is rendered navigable for large vessels, into the bay of Carlingford; and by a noble canal which joins the Banan river, has a communication with Lough-Neagh and all the circumjacent neighbourhood. Drogheda, seated on the river Boyne, which is navigable for ships of burden to the quay, 23 miles north from Dublin, governed by a mayor, sheriffs, recorder and aldermen, is a county in itself, and sends two members to parliament. Wexford, capital of the county of the same name, 67 miles south from Dublin, is governed by a mayor and other magistrates, and sends two members to parliament; built near the sea, upon the river Slaney. And Armagh, which is not only one of the greatest markets for linen, but is perhaps unrivalled by any other of equal extent, for the beauty of its publick buildings, for which it is indebted to the unexampled munificence of its primate.

REVENUE AND EXPENSES, IN 1787.

	£	s.	d.
Hereditary Revenue	262,249	9	6½
Additional duties on Customs and Excise inwards and outwards	516,695	4	6½
Duties on stamped paper and parchment	39,893	3	4
Revenue arising from the Post-Office	14,171	9	4
Pells and Poundage received at the Treasury	25,301	8	1
Surplus from the publick coal yards	864	16	5
Lottery offices' licenses	233	18	8
Rent of new Geneva County Waterford	738	14	2½
Regimental Balance	1,500	0	0
Absentee Tax	6,308	9	4¾
	£867,956	13	6¼

Expenses of Ireland for one year, ending March 25, 1787.

	£.	s.	d.
Civil list	197,727	6	1¾
Military establishment	501,289	8	7½
Extraordinary charges	533,221	1	0¾
The total gross expense	£1,232,237	15	10

From whence deducting lottery payments	160,000	0	0	
The militia expense of one year	20,000	0	0	
And sums repaid out of the produce of the tillage duties	4,228	17	11¾	
			184,228	17 11¾
The actual expense			£1,048,008	17 10¼

*National Debt.**] The debt of Ireland is considered as having originated in 1715, when a vote of credit for 50,000l. was passed, on a threatened invasion of the kingdom. From that period its progress, though irregular and fluctuating, was considerable; and in the year 1749, it amounted to 205,117l. However, through the exercise of unusual economy, or an increase of revenue, this debt was extinguished, and the nation was in credit from the year 1750 to 1760, when the nation again engaged in debt, which accumulated from 223,438l. the debt in 1761, to 2,302,146l. the debt in 1787.

History.] See Leland's History of Ireland; O'Connor's Dissertations on the History of Ireland; and Historical Tracts, by Sir John Davis, Attorney-General and Speaker of the House of Commons in Ireland.

In consequence of the calamitous civil commotions in this portion of the British dominions, and as an effectual preventative against their repetition, a proposition for a legislative union between the two kingdoms was submitted to the parliaments of England and Ireland on the same day, (Jan. 22, 1799) and in the English parliament the plan was approved without division. In the Irish House of Lords the proposition was accepted, but rejected in the Commons by a majority of two. The succeeding year, however, (Jan. 15, 1800) the measure was revived and approved in the Irish House of Lords without division, and in the Commons by a majority of 42. The articles of this union, which have since been voted, import,

"That the kingdoms of Great-Britain and Ireland shall, upon the first day of January 1801, and forever after, be united into one kingdom, by the name of *The United Kingdom of Great-Britain and Ireland*. That of the peers of Ireland at the time of the union, four spiritual Lords, by rotation of sessions, and twenty-eight temporal peers for life, shall be the number to sit and vote, in the House of Lords: and one hundred Commoners (viz. two for each county of Ireland, two for the city of Dublin, two for the city of Cork, and one for each of the thirty-two of the most considerable cities, towns, and boroughs) be the number of representatives of Ireland in the House of Commons of the parliament of the united kingdom."

It is also provided by these articles "that, for the space of 20 years after the union shall take place, the contribution of Great-Britain and Ireland respectively towards the expenditure of the united kingdom in each year, shall be defrayed in the proportion of fifteen parts for Great-Britain and two parts for Ireland;" this proportion at that time to be subject to revision and regulation from other considerations.

ISLE OF MAN.

THE Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, was the isle of Anglesea, not this island. It lies in St. George's Channel, and is almost at an equal distance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland and Ireland. Its length from north to south is rather more than thirty miles; its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of

* Extracted from the Journals of the House of Commons.

the island is fifty-four degrees sixteen minutes north. It is said, that on a clear day the three Britannick kingdoms may be seen from this island. The air here is wholesome, and the climate, only making allowance for the situation, pretty much the same as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other respects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots and pulse. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divides the island, both protects and fertilizes the vallies, where there is good pasturage. The better sorts of inhabitants have good sizeable horses, and a small kind, which are swift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coasts abound with sea-fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit-holes, are almost a lump of fat, and esteemed very delicious. It is said, that this island abounds with iron, lead and copper mines, though unwrought; as are the quarries of marble, slate and stone.

The Isle of Man contains seventeen parishes and four towns on the sea-coasts. Castle-town is the metropolis of the island, and the seat of its government; Peele, which of late years begins to flourish; Douglas has the best market and best trade in the island, and is the richest and most populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the sea; Ramsey has likewise a considerable commerce, on account of its spacious bay, in which ships may ride safe from all winds excepting the north-east. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map may see how conveniently this island is situated for being the store-house of smugglers; which it was, till within these few years, to the great prejudice of his majesty's revenue.

The crown of Great-Britain purchased this island, in 1765, from the Athol family, to whom it then belonged, for 70,000l. The duke of Athol, however, retains his territorial property in the island, though the form of its government is altered; and the king has now the same rights, powers and prerogatives as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants, also, retain many of their ancient constitutions and customs.

The established religion in Man is that of the church of England. The bishop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminences of other bishops, but does not set in the British house of peers; his see never having been erected into an English barony. One of the most excellent prelates who ever adorned the episcopal character was Dr. Thomas Wilson, bishop of Man, who presided over that diocese upwards of fifty-seven years, and died in the year 1755, aged ninety-three. He was eminently distinguished for the piety and exemplariness of his life; his benevolence and hospitality; and his unremitting attention to the happiness of the people entrusted to his care. He encouraged agriculture; established schools for the instruction of the children of the inhabitants of the island; translated some of his devotional pieces into the Manks language, to render them more generally useful to them; and founded parochial libraries in every parish in his diocese. Some of his notions respecting government and church discipline were not of the most liberal kind: But his failings were so few, and his virtues so numerous and conspicuous, that he was a great blessing to the isle of Man, and an ornament to human nature. Car-

dinal Fleury had so much veneration for his character, that out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation should ravage the Isle of Man.

The ecclesiastical government is well kept up in this island, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is spoken by the common people, is radically Erse, or Irish, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Testament and common Prayer Book have been translated into the Manks language. The natives, who amount to above 20,000, are inoffensive, charitable and hospitable. The better sort live in stone houses, and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation consist of wool, hides and tallow; which they exchange with foreign shipping for commodities they may have occasion for from other parts. Before the south promontory of Man, is a little island called the Calf of Man: It is about three miles in circuit, and separated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This island affords some curiosities which may amuse an antiquary. They consist chiefly of Runick sepulchral inscriptions and monuments, of ancient brass daggers, and other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are sometimes dug up, and seem to indicate the splendour of its ancient possessors.

ISLE OF WIGHT.

THIS island is situated opposite the coast of Hampshire, from which it is separated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to seven miles; it is considered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the diocese of Winchester. Its greatest length, extending from east to west, measures nearly twenty-three miles; its breadth from north to south about thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly the southern parts; the soil is various, but so great is its fertility, it was many years ago computed, that more wheat was raised here in one year, than could be consumed by the inhabitants in eight: And it is supposed that its present produce, under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increase of population. A range of hills, which affords fine pasture for sheep, extends from east to west, through the middle of the island. The interior parts of the island, as well as its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and picturesque prospects, not only in the pastoral, but also in the great and romantick style. Of these beauties the gentlemen of the island have availed themselves, as well in the choice of situation of their houses, as in their other improvements. Domestick fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; the outward-bound ships and vessels at Spithead, the Mother banks and Cowes, commonly furnishing themselves from this island.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the beauty and variety of the landscapes of this island, that it has been called

the garden of England; it has some very fine seats; and it is often visited by parties of pleasure on account of its delightful scenes.

The island is divided into thirty parishes: And according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thousand and twenty-four, exclusive of the troops quartered there. Most of the farm-houses are built with stone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.

The town of Newport stands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it may be considered as the capital. The river Medina empties itself into the channel at Cowes harbour, distant about five miles, and being navigable up to the quay, renders it commodious for trade. The three principal streets of Newport extend from east to west, and are crossed at right angles by three others, all which are spacious, clean, and well paved.

Carisbrooke castle, in the Isle of Wight, has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here, was detained a prisoner, from November 1647, to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this castle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, died in it. There are several other forts in this island, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VII. when many other forts and block-houses were built in different parts of the coast of England.

THE SCILLY ISLES, ANCIENTLY THE SILURES,

ARE a cluster of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about 30 miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they are reckoned a part. By their situation between the English channel and St. George's channel, they have been the destruction of many ships and lives. Some of the islands are well inhabited, and have large and secure harbours. The largest is St. Mary, five miles in circuit, with a castle and garrison, and 600 inhabitants. St. Agnes has 300 inhabitants. The population of all these isles is 1000.

[*Pinkerton.*]

In the English channel are four islands subject to England: These are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coast of Normandy than to that of England, are within the diocese of Winchester. They lie in a cluster in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernsey, seven leagues; and between the same and Alderney, nine leagues. Guernsey is twelve miles long and nine broad; an isle of verdant hills, and destitute of wood.

JERSEY, ANCIENTLY CÆSAREA,

WAS known to the Romans, and lies farthest within the bay, in forty-nine degrees seven minutes north latitude, and in the second degree twenty-six minutes west longitude, eighteen miles west of Normandy, and eighty-four miles south of Portland. The north side is inaccessible through lofty cliffs, the south is almost level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cider. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and sheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cider, (of which they sometimes make 24,000 hogsheads in a year) the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of stockings. The honey in Jersey is remarkably fine; and the island is well supplied with fish and wild fowl of almost every kind, some of both being peculiar to the island, and very delicious.

The island is not above twelve miles in length; but the air is so salubrious, that in Camden's time, it was said there was here no business for a physician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve parishes. The capital town is St. Helier, or Hilary, which contains above 400 houses, has a good harbour and castle, and makes a handsome appearance. The property of this island belonged formerly to the Cartarets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal interest, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the British dominions durst recognise him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which most of them intermingle English words. Knit stockings and caps form their staple commodity; but they carry on a considerable trade in fish with Newfoundland, and dispose of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governour is appointed by the crown of England; but the civil administration rests with a bailiff, assisted by twelve jurats. As this island is the principal remain of the dutchy of Normandy, depending on the kings of England, it preserves the old feudal forms, and particularly the assembly of states, which is as it were a miniature of the British parliament, as settled in the time of Edward I. "Here are divers monuments of Druidical temples. They consist of flat rag-stones of prodigious size, raised three or four feet from the ground, and sustained by others of less bulk. They are altars on which often human victims were offered." [*Bowen.*]

GUERNSEY

IS thirteen miles and a half from south-west to north-east, and twelve and a half where broadest, east and west; has only ten parishes, to which there are but eight ministers, four of the parishes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guern-

sey, having one each. Though this is a much finer island than that of Jersey, yet it is far less valuable; because it is not so well cultivated, nor is it so populous. It abounds in cider; and the inhabitants speak French: But want of firing is the greatest inconveniency that both islands labour under. The only harbour here is at St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts; one called the Old Castle, and the other Castle Cornet. Guernsey is likewise part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY

IS about eight miles in compass, and is by much the nearest of all these islands to Normandy, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwise it is safe, and has depth of water for the largest ships. This island is healthy, and is remarkable for a fine breed of cows. It has 1000 inhabitants.

SARK

IS a small island depending upon Guernsey; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniences of life; their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three last mentioned islands together, are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four islands is that of the church of England.

FRANCE.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles
Length 600, Breadth 560 } between { 70° and 83° E. long. from Philadelphia. 42° and 51° N. lat.

Boundaries.] IT is bounded by the English channel and the Netherlands on the north; by Germany, Switzerland and Italy on the east; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, on the south; and by the Bay of Biscay on the west. Containing 160,000 square miles. [*Busching.*] Or 186,282 square miles and 131,722,295 acres. [*Young and Necker.*]

Divisions and Population.] France, in 1791, was divided into departments, as in the following table; each then containing the number of inhabitants annexed.

TABLE.

No	Departments.	Ancient Provinces	Population.	Chief Towns and Principal Cities.	Inhabitants.
1	Ain	Bresse	274500	Bourg	5800
2	Aisne	Picardie	387600	Laon	8600
3	Allier	Bourbonnais	213800	Moulins	16200
4	Hautes-Alpes	Dauphiné	114000	Gap	4500
5	Basses-Alpes	Idem	160400	Digne	5000
6	Alpes-maritimes	Comté de Nice	97000	Nice	42000
7	Ardêche	Languedoc	237500	Privas	4900
8	Ardennes	Champagne	235300	Meziere, Sedan	25800
9	Arriège	Foix	163000	Foix	3600
10	Aube	Champagne	211000	Troyes	31900
11	Aude	Languedoc	228000	Carcassone	15100
12	Aveyron	Guyenne	328000	Rhodes	7800
13	Bec d' Ambèz	Gascogne	498000	Bordeaux	185000
14	Bouches du Rhone	Provence	287000	Aix, Marseille	131300
15	Calvados	Normandie	350000	Caen	49000
16	Cantal	Auvergne	177000	Aurillac	5900
17	Cher	Berri	197000	Bourges	26200
18	Charente	Angoumois	324000	Angouleme [fort	12800
19	Charente inférieure	Annis et Saintogne	416000	Saintes, Roch le Roch-	41300
20	Corrèze	Limousin	257000	Tulle	6300
21	Cote d'Or	Bourgogne	331900	Dijon	19500
22	Cote du Nord	Bretagne	478000	Saint-Brieux	9700
23	Creuze	Marche	226000	Gueret	3400
24	Dorbogne	Guyenne	460000	Périgueux	9700
25	Doubs	Franche Comté	212000	Befcancon	23800
26	Drome	Dauphiné	235000	Valence	7800
27	Eure	Normandie	385000	Evereux	10700
28	Eure et Loire	Beruce	247000	Chartres	8500
29	Finisterre	Bretagne	428000	Quimper, Brest	41300
30	Gard	Languedoc	298000	Nismes	49500
31	Haute Garonne	Idem	435000	Toulouse	56400
32	Gers	Gascogne	289000	Auch	7500
33	Herault	Languedoc	282000	Montpelier	32500
34	Ille et Vilaine	Bretagne	473000	Rennes	31400
35	Indre	Berri	225000	Chateauroux	6500
36	Indre et Loire	Touraine	268000	Tours	20800
37	Isère	Dauphiné	314000	Grenoble	24500
38	Jura	Franche-Comté	267000	Lons le Saunier	5300
39	Landes	Gascogne	229000	Mont de Marsan	2900
40	Loire et Cher	Blasois	197000	Blois	11600
41	Haute-Loir	Languedoc	210000	Le Puy	16800
42	Loire inferieure	Bretagne	365000	Nantes	75000
43	Loiret	Orléannois	272000	Orleans	38200
44	Lot	Guyenne	375000	Cahors, Montauban	29800
45	Lot et Garonne	Idem	391000	Agen	4900
46	Lozère	Languedoc	119000	Mend	6500
47	Manche	Normandie	498000	Coutances, Cherbourg	25300
48	Marne	Champagne	281000	Chalons, Rheims	63500
49	Haute-Marne	Idem	283000	Chaumont	6500
50	Mayenne	Maine	234000	Laval	24300
51	Mayenne et Loire	Anjou	335000	Angers	28000
52	Meurthe	Lorraine	304000	Nanci, Luneville	50600
53	Meuze	Idem	251000	Bar-le-Duc, Verdun	23300
54	Mont-Blanc	Savoie	245000	Chamberi	17500
55	Mont-Terrible	Eveché de Basle	63000	Porentru	3500
56	Morbihan	Bretagne	385000	Vannes, L'Orient	25700
57	Mozelle	Lorraine	293000	Metz	40200
58	Nièvre	Nivernais	221000	Nevers	13800
59	Nord	Flandre	513000	Douai, Lille, Dunelibre	107500

No.	Departments.	Ancient Provinces.	Population.	Chief Towns and Principal Cities.	Inhabitants.
60	Oise	Isle de France	326000	Beauvais	7300
61	Orne	Normandie	337000	Alencon	13200
62	Paris	Isle de France	900000	Paris	712000
63	Pas-de-Calais	Artois	514000	Arras	31000
64	Puy de Dome	Auvergne	523000	Clermont	25300
65	Hautes-Pyrenées	Bern et Navarre	174000	Tarbes	4600
66	Basses-Pyrenées	Idem	295000	Pau	10000
67	Pyrenées orient	Roussillon	92000	Perpignan	15800
68	Bas-Rhin	Alsace	315000	Strawsbourg	44500
69	Haut-Rhin	Idem	269000	Colmar	11300
70	Rhone et Loire	Forez	123000	St. Etienne	27000
71	Départ. affranchi	Lyonnois	308000	Ville affranchie(Lyon)	217000
72	Haute-Saone	Franche-Comté	235000	Vesoul	5800
73	Saone et Loire	Bourgogne	421000	Macon	9500
74	Sarthe	Maine	327000	Le Mans	13800
75	Seine et Oise	Isle de France	398000	Versailles	35000
76	Seine inferieure	Normandie	412000	Rouen	80000
77	Seine et Marne	Isle de France	281000	Melun	5300
78	Deux Sevres	H. Poitou	183000	Niort	8300
79	Somme	Picardie	356000	Amiens, Abbeville	62300
80	Tarn	Languedoc	242000	Castres	8700
81	Var	Province [vince	235000	Port de la Montagne T.	4500
82	Vaucluse	Avignonaist et Pro-	114000	Avignon	27000
83	Vendée	B. Poitou	83000	Fontenai	7300
84	Vienne	Haut Poitou	243000	Poitiers	17300
85	HauteVienne	Limousin	254000	Limoges	21600
86	Vosges	Lorraine	258000	Epinal	3700
87	Yonne	Auxerrois	268000	Auxerre	9700
88	L'Isle de Corse	L'Isle de Corse	120000	Bastia	8000
89	Jemmape	HainautAutrichien	270000	Mons	30000
90	CoteSeptentrional	Flandre	450000	Gand	70000
91	Reunis à la Fran	93 évechéde Liege, &c.	240000	Liege	60000
92	1793	Comte de Namur	190000	Namur	40000
	Brabant, Marquisa	D'Anvers, Malinois	620000	Bruxels	150000
		Total,	27253000		

France, at present is divided into 108 departments and 444 communes, with 5521 justices of the peace or cantons, divided into 31 senatories, or tribunals of appeal, and 16 circles for coberts of the legion of honour, in 29 forest ranges, and in 27 military divisions.

The population of France, in 1795, was as follows:

	Males.	Females.
From 1 to 10 years,	2,979,166	3,369,792
11 20	2,447,917	2,375,000
21 30	1,984,375	1,734,375
31 40	1,755,209	1,619,791
41 50	1,588,542	1,490,583
51 60	921,875	979,166
61 70	645,833	588,542
71 80	244,792	208,333
81 90	36,452	15,625
91 100	5,208	10,416
Sum	12,609,369	12,391,623
Males and Females		25,000,992

Number of married people	11,100,000
do. widowers	609,751
do. widows	1,212,512
Men able to carry arms	5,519,000

The population of the department of Corsica, of the bishoprick of Basle, principality of Montbeliard, Nice and Savoy, forming now the departments of Mont Blanc, Mont Terrible and Alpes Maritimes, are not included in the above statement. The population of the latter departments amounts to 542,000 souls.

From the foregoing statements it appears, that the population of France, in the course of four years, was diminished 1,700,000.

POSSESSIONS OF FRANCE IN THE OTHER PARTS OF THE GLOBE.*

1. IN ASIA.

Some districts on the coast of Coromandel, of which Pondicherry is the capital. Some less considerable settlements on the Malabar coast and in Bengal, and several factories.

2. IN AFRICA.

In Barbary, Bastion de France. The island of Goree, part of Senegambia, Fort Louis on the Senegal, and Podar, Galam, Potendick, Fort Arguin. On the coast of Guinea, Francois. In the Indian Sea, the Islands of Bourbon and Isle de France.

3. IN AMERICA.

The North-American islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon. In the West-Indies, the whole of the island of St. Domingo,† the islands of Martinique, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, Maria Galante, St. Martin, and Tobago. In South-America, some settlements in Guiana and the island of Cayenne.

All these possessions, according to Necker, contain about 600,000 inhabitants.

Name.] France took its name from Francs or Freeman, a German nation, restless and enterprising, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants; and the Roman force not being able to repress them, they were permitted to settle in the country by treaty.

Water.] No nation is better supplied than France is with wholesome springs and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent use, by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniences of life.

Mountains.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees which divide France from Spain: Vauge, which divide Lorrain from Burgundy

* We are unable to state what changes have taken place in these possessions since the revolution.

† The Spanish part of St. Domingo was ceded to France in the late Treaty of Peace between France and Spain, but has since declared independence.

and Alsace ; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Compte from Switzerland ; the Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc ; and Mount Dor, in the province of Auvergne.

Rivers and Lakes.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course north-west and west, being, with all its windings, from its source to the sea, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on south-west to Lyons, and then runs on due south till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course, first, north-east, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. and turns to the north-west, and falls into the Bay of Biscay. The Seine, soon after its rise, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris and Rouen in its way, and falls into the English channel at Havre. To these we may add the Saone, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons. The Rhine, which rises in Switzerland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Sarte in its passage. The Somme, which runs north-west through Picardy, and falls into the English channel below Abbeville. The Var, which rises in the Alps, and runs south, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, west of Nice. The Adour runs from east to west, through Gascoigne, and falls into the Bay of Biscay, below Bayonne.

The vast advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which arises to France from those rivers, is greatly improved by the artificial rivers and canals, which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and completed in 1680 : It was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet ; but though it was carried on at an immense expense, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered that purpose. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of eighteen leagues, to the immense benefit of the publick and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation exceedingly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomless. There is another at Issoire, in Auvergne ; and one at La Besse, in which if you throw a stone, it causes a noise like thunder.

Mineral Waters and remarkable Springs.] The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health. Some think, however, that the cures performed by them are more owing to their accidental success, and the salubrity of the air and soil, than to the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzabach in Alsace, are said to cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone. At Bagueiis not far from Bareges, are several wholesome minerals and baths, to which people resort at spring and au-

tumn. Forges, in Normandy, is celebrated for its mineral waters; and those of St. Amand cure the gravel and obstructions. It would be endless to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France. There is a spring near Aigne in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noise like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taste, but has a poisonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die instantly.

Metals and Minerals.] Languedoc is said to contain veins of gold and silver. Alsace has mines of silver and copper, but they are too extensive to be wrought. Alabaster, black marble, jasper, and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of ochre, which serves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the best drab cloths; and in the province of Anjou are several quarries of fine white stone. Some excellent turquoises (the only gem it is said that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free stone open in every part of France.

Forests.] The chief forests of France are those of Orleans, which contain 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, ash, &c. and the forest of Fontainbleau near as large; and near Morchismoir is a forest of tall, straight timber, of 4000 trees. Besides these, large numbers of woods, some of them deserving the name of forests, lie in different provinces; but too remote from sea carriage to be of much national utility.

*Wealth and Commerce.**] France is situated in a very mild climate; its soil is, in most parts, very fertile; it is bounded by high ridges of mountains, the lower branches of which cross the greatest part of the kingdom; it consequently abounds with large rivers, 200 of which are navigable, and it is contiguous to two oceans. These united advantages render this kingdom one of the richest countries of Europe, both with respect to natural productions and commerce. One of the most valuable articles of produce is wine, the great staple commodity of France. One million six hundred thousand acres of ground are laid out in vineyards; and the net profits from each acre estimated at from 4l. to 7l. sterl. According to other statements, the yearly value of all the wine made in France, amounts to 300 millions of livres; and that of wine exported annually, to 24,000,000. The best sorts of French wine are Champaign, Burgundy, Pontac, Muscat, Fontigniac, Cremitage, Cote, Roti, &c.; of the inferior sorts brandy and vinegar is made in large quantities. Vines prosper, though not equally, in almost every province of France, except Normandy and Picardy.

Great efforts are making to encourage and improve agriculture; yet there is still a large portion of the ground in an uncultivated state.† No more than about 36,000,000 acres are cultivated.

* The following account of these articles was given by Zimmermann in 1787. It exhibits the state of France, in regard to these particulars, at that period.

† There is more good land in France than in England, in proportion to the size of the two countries; but England is much better cultivated and more productive than France. The population is too great for the extent and cultivation of the country. The price of labour is greater in England than in France, and the expense of living in the former somewhat more than in the latter. [*Young*]

France is therefore obliged to import corn. During the administration of Mr. Necker this disadvantage was partly obviated; and there are now some provinces which export corn, for instance, Alsace and Languedoc. Flax and hemp which are imported from the north, might be more profitably cultivated in the kingdom in larger quantities than hitherto. The silk raised in considerable quantities in some provinces does not, however, sufficiently supply the numerous manufactures; about 200,000lb. are produced in Languedoc, and not much less in Provence. The most important silk manufactures are at Lyons and Tours; at the last mentioned place there are said to be 7,000 looms, and at the first as many as 18,000. This must be understood, however, of the times preceding the repeal of the Edict of Nantes. By this unjust and impolitick measure a very great number of Protestant manufacturers were expelled the kingdom, and carried their valuable arts to more liberal countries. Next to these two cities, those of Paris, Chatillon and Nimes, are distinguished for their silk manufactures. The first silk manufacture was established at Tours by Louis XI. in the year 1470. At the large fair at Beaucaire there used to be sold, in a few days, goods to the value of 6,000,000 livres, by far the greatest part of which were silks. Even now this trade is of an amazing extent; 7,000 balls of silk of 160lb. each, of which however a great part is imported from abroad, are conveyed annually to Lyons.

Olive oil is one of the principal commodities of France; most of it is produced in the provinces of Provence and Languedoc. The county of Rousillon alone gains annually 200,000 livres by this article; the consumption of it in France is however so great, that some oil is still imported from Italy. The inferior sort of oil is used in making soap; there are at Marseilles alone thirty-six soap manufactures. France abounds in excellent and high flavoured fruits, as grapes, apples, lemons, oranges, chesnuts, &c. and likewise in manna, saffron, and wood. A great quantity of kermes and soda is produced in the most southerly parts. Salt is obtained in great plenty; the duties on this article, though very oppressive to the subject, are one of the largest branches of the revenue: They are farmed at 54,000,000 livres annually. The salt however is not remarkable for its purity. The consumption of tobacco in France amounts to 20 millions of pounds: Fifteen millions are raised in the country, and five millions imported by smuggling.

Horses, cattle and asses, are not remarkably good, except in a few districts. The flocks of sheep, though numerous, are not able to supply the large woollen manufactures. Picardy alone, however, produces annually 600,000lb. of wool; and so many live sheep have been smuggled over from England into Normandy and Bretagne, that the flocks of those two provinces are thought to be not inferior to those of England. By the same clandestine traffick English wool is imported to the value of 100,000l. sterling. The French cloth manufactures are risen to very great consequence; the most considerable among them are those of Amiens, Abbeville, Lyons, Sedan, Paris, Rouen, Ryssel, &c. In the government of Lyons, woollens are manufactured to the value of 13,000,000 livres, two thirds of which are

exported. In Bretagne there are 800 looms for light stuffs. The manufactures at Abbeville have considerably injured those of England; as have likewise those in Languedoc and Provence, especially by their concurrence and superiour demand in the Levant market.

The mineral kingdom in France has hitherto not afforded very large treasures. Some silver is found in Alsace, at St. Marie aux mines, and Moncrif; copper and iron, almost sufficient for the demand of the manufactures, is found in Roussillon, Bigorre, Foix, Navarre, Gascogne, Normande, Bretagne and Orleanois. Many of these mines contain lead. However, steel is annually imported to the value of 3,000,000 livres. Mineralogy has hitherto been in an infant state; but when duly attended to, the mines of France are likely to yield very ample profits.

There are manufactures of alum, vitriol and saltpetre; in Franche Comte 1,200,000lb. of the latter article are annually obtained.

France has very important fisheries. About 50,000 tons of herrings are caught annually by the French fishermen; the fishery of anchovies is said to be worth two millions of livres. The French fisheries on the North-American coasts were estimated, before the year 1744, at 1,000,000l. sterling; they have since decreased, but it is likely they will soon be worth nearly as much as before, in consequence of the cessions made to France by the peace of 1783. In 1768, the French sent 114 vessels to Newfoundland, which brought home a cargo of cod, worth 3,000,000 livres; but the profits arising from this branch of fishery are not very considerable.

To enumerate the many manufactures* of articles of luxury established in France, would exceed the limits of this book; it is sufficiently known, that France has long ago taken the lead in fashions,† and has had the good fortune of seeing them imitated and adopted by most other nations of Europe. This fortunate pre-eminence is a very great source of profits. In the year 1773, there were in France 1500 silk-mills, 21,000 looms for silk stuffs, 12,000 for ribbands and lace, 20,000 for silk stockings; and the different silk manufactures employed 2,000,000 persons.

As a commercial state, France follows immediately after England and Holland. Its trade is carried on with all Europe; that branch of it which was carried on publickly with England was hitherto not very considerable. It exported to England in the year 1785, goods to the value of 117,366l. sterling, and imported from England to the value of 358,244l. sterling. But the smuggling trade between both countries is carried on to a great amount. It was publickly stated in the House of Commons, that only 60,000 kegs of spirits paid the duties, and 3,000,000 kegs were smuggled; the greatest part of which were French spirits. The French have made themselves masters of the greatest share of the Levant trade; they export the produce of their manufactures, chiefly woollens, and West-India goods, from Marseilles to Constantinople, Smyrna, Syria and Egypt. They take, however, so large quantities of the produce of these countries in return, that they are obliged to pay a balance in ready money. The

* Manufactures are more considerable in England than in France. [*Young.*]
† Fashions (in dress) change oftener in England than in France. [*Ibid.*]

French enjoy some valuable commercial privileges in Turkey. Their African and East-India trade is likewise unprofitable; but their West-India possessions, which are admirably cultivated and governed, make ample amends for these losses by the many articles of commerce they supply, which are valued at 125,000,000 livres. Before the late American war, the balance of commerce in favour of France was estimated at 70,000,000 livres, and it is said, that it has not diminished since. Inland trade is generally facilitated by numerous navigable canals in several parts of the kingdom. The principal trading towns are Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, Bourdeaux, Nantes, Rouen, St. Malo, Rochelle, Havre de Grace, Dunkirk, &c. [*Zimmermann.*]

The land trade of France to Switzerland and Italy is carried on by way of Lyons—To Germany, through Metz and Strasburgh—To the Netherlands, through Lisle—To Spain (a most profitable one) through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for the naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the western ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more especially respecting what is carried on with England, Holland and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marseilles) with Turkey and Africa has long been very considerable.

The West-India islands, before the late disturbances, produced annually, on an average, Sugar, 224,000,000lbs.—Coffee, 620,000,000lbs.—Cotton, 7,700,000lbs.—Indigo, 22,000,000lbs.; with many other articles. Total value of West-India products, 190,000,000 livres, or 40,000l. sterling. France exports to the amount of 102,000,000 livres, which deducted from 190,000,000 livres, (the whole value) leaves 88,000,000 livres or 400,000l. sterling for home consumption.

The Newfoundland fisheries employed annually 264 ships, containing 27,439 tons, and 9,403 men. Total value of the fishery, 6,000,000, or 270,000l. sterling.

The East-India importation was valued at 18,000,000 livres, or 800,000l. sterling.

Total exports of France	332,000,000 livres, or	£15,000,000 sterl.
Imports	256,000,000 livres, or	£11,640,000
Balance in favour of France		£3,360,000

One great disadvantage to the commerce of France is that the profession of a merchant is not so honourable as in England and some other countries, so that the French nobility think it below them; which is the reason that the church, the law and the army were so full of that order. A great number of the cities of France, till the late revolution, had the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to distinguish their respective pieces; which was very embarrassing, especially to strangers.

Trade was much benefited in France by the following circumstances and regulations: First—By the great subordination, the lower classes of the people were kept in habits of sobriety and industry; this was perhaps one of the few good consequences of the severity of a strict monarchical government, which may in some measure palliate

some other hardships resulting from it. Secondly—No goods were permitted to be offered for sale which had not been previously examined by proper officers, in order to prevent impositions on the purchaser. Thirdly—The French colonies were under the necessity of being supplied with almost all necessaries from the mother country. Fourthly—In the ports, for instance, at Bourdeaux, the commodities imported by merchants were deposited in the royal ware-houses adjoining the custom-house, and the duties of the whole purchase were not paid at once, but only the duties of such parts of it as the merchant took out gradually from the ware-houses for sale.

The average imports of France in 1783 were about 12,500,000l. the exports nearly 10,000,000. The imports of Great-Britain the same year were about 18,000,000, the exports 17,500,000; such was the comparative commerce of the two countries; but since the revolution the commerce of England has been constantly increasing and that of France has been almost annihilated. [*Pinkerton.*]

The bank of France, called the Caisse'd'Escompte, enjoyed considerable credit. There was only one trading company, viz. the East-India company: the stock of which amounted to only ten millions of livres, and whose affairs were under the management of 12 administrators.

Learning and Learned Men.] The sciences have risen to a very great height in France, and this nation can boast of having produced great master-pieces in almost every branch of scientifick knowledge and elegant literature.

During the last hundred years, the French language has acquired the great privilege of being generally introduced as a polite language into all other European countries. Besides the excellence of the French writers of the age of Louis XV. the circulation of that language must be attributed to the frequent wars and negociations of the French, to the prevalence of their fashions, and to the dispersion of several hundred thousand banished Protestants over other countries, where the politeness of their manners effected a predilection for their language.

Lewis XIV. was the Augustus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the pensions he bestowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000l. per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterprises, upon which he expended so many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign, are too numerous to be mentioned. Their tragick poets, Racine and Corneille, have deservedly obtained a very high reputation: The first was distinguished for skill in moving the passions; the second for majesty; and both, for the strength and justness of their painting, the elegance of their taste, and their strict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere would have exhausted the subjects of comedy, were they not every where inexhaustible, and particularly in France. In works of satire and in criticism, Boileau, who was a close imitator of the ancients, possessed uncommon merit. But France has not yet produced an epick poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the same extensive and universal kind with Shakespeare, equally fitted for the gay

and the serious, the humorous and the sublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly superior to the English: Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, Massillon and Saurin, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection, which the English may approach, but can hardly be expected ever to surpass. The genius, however, of their religion and government, was extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the most useful branches of philosophy. All the establishments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of science, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, and that of the court and ministry, who had an equal interest in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every sound principle of government. The French have not therefore so many good writers on moral, religious, or political subjects, as have appeared in Great-Britain. But France has produced some great men, who do honour to humanity; whose career no obstacle could stop, whose freedom no government, however despotick, no religion, however superstitious, could curb or restrain. As an historian, De Thou is entitled to the highest praise; and who is ignorant of Pascal, or of the archbishop of Cambray? Few men have done more service to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Montesquieu, he is an honour to human nature: he is the legislator of nations; his works are read in every country and language; and wherever they go, they enlighten and invigorate the human mind.

In the belles lettres and miscellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers; among whom we may place Montaigne, D'Argens, Rosseau, Voltaire, and Marmontel, as the most considerable; though it is to be lamented that some of these men perverted their distinguished talents to the worst purposes.

Descartes ranks among the greatest philosophers in modern times. He was the first who applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical discoveries of Newton. Many of the present age are excellent mathematicians; particularly D'Alembert, who, with all the precision of a geometrician, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the 17th century, the French have vied with the English in natural philosophy. Buffon is to be regarded as a philosophical painter of nature: and under this view, his Natural History is among the first works of its kind.

Their painters, Poussin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at present to compare with them in the more noble kinds of painting; but Mr. Greuse, for portraits and conversation pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in most other countries of Europe. Their treatises on ship building and engineering stand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the English. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long superior to the English in architecture.

The French Encyclopedia, or general dictionary of arts and sciences, consisting of 28 folio volumes, (6 of which are copper plates) is

a work which discovers great literary talents ; but the *design* of this work, which was to sap the foundation of the christian religion, has rendered it dangerous to religion, morals and happiness.

Universities and Publick Colleges.] These literary institutions received a present loss by the expulsion of the Jesuits, who made the languages, arts and sciences, their particular study, and taught them all over France ; but the extinction of this body of men served to lessen the influence of superstition in France ; and there is reason to believe that the interests of real learning and science have, upon the whole, been promoted by that event. Before the revolution, there were in France twenty-eight universities, viz. Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Besancon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, La Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Pont-a-Mousson, Richlieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Toulouse, Tournoise and Valence.

The state of education in all catholick countries has prevented a general diffusion of knowledge. Ignorance naturally leads to crimes ; hence one cause of those bloody scenes in the revolution, which have appalled the world. Those jacobins who endeavoured to destroy the aristocracy of knowledge, as well as of office and property, united consummate ignorance with the practice of every vice. [*Pinkerton.*]

Since the revolution a new system of publick instruction has been adopted by the French republick ; an account of which was given in the last edition of this work. As alterations in this system have since been made, it is not repeated.

In the course of the year 1800, there appeared in France 1407 new publications : Of these, 60 were on legislation, 177 romances, 33 almanacks, 16 philosophical, and *three* theological writings.

Antiquities and Curiosities, natural and artificial.] Few countries, if we except Italy, can boast of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and consequently, compared to them, those of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a most curious account of the sepulchres of their kings, which have been discovered so far back as Pharamond ; and some of them, when broke open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be seen triumphal arches ; but the most entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cambri and Teutones, by Caius Marius and Luctatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took great delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and sacred ; some of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itself. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewise at Vienne. Nismes, however, exhibits the most valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raised in the Augustan age, by the Roman colony of Nismes, to convey a stream of water between two mountains for the use of that city, and is as fresh to this day as Westminster bridge : It consists of three bridges, or tiers of arches one above another ; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other stupendous aqueducts, to the igno-

rance of the ancients, that all streams will rise as high as their heads. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Nismes; but the chief, are the temple of Diana, whose vestiges are still remaining; the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the finest and most entire of the kind of any in Europe; but above all, the house erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maison Quarrée. The architecture and sculpture of this building are so exquisitely beautiful, that it enchants even the most ignorant; and it is still entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havock of war. At Paris, in La Rue de la Harpe, may be seen the remains of a palace, or thermæ, supposed to have been built by the emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, about the year 356, after the same model as the baths of Dioclesian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large saloon. It is fabricated of a kind of mastick, the composition of which is not now known, intermixed with small square pieces of free stone and bricks.

In Arles in Provence is to be seen an obelisk of oriental granite, which is 52 feet high, and seven feet diameter at the base, and all but one stone. Roman temples are frequent in France. The most curious are in Burgundy and Guienne; and other places, besides the neighbourhood of Nismes, contain magnificent ruins of aqueducts. The passage cut through the middle of a rock near Briancon in Dauphiny is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty-one pounds, containing the story of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coeval with that great general. It would be endless to recount the different monuments of antiquity to be found in France, particularly in the cabinets of the curious. These have been greatly increased, during the revolution, by the spoils obtained in Italy, Egypt, &c.

According to Ramond the very summit of Mount Perdu, the highest summit of the Pyrenees, 10,000 feet above the sea, abounds with marine spoils, and must have been covered by the sea. This observation is confirmed by La Peyrouse. Thus the everlasting mountains tell the reality of Noah's deluge. [*Pinkerton.*]

Cities and Towns.] These are numerous in France; of which we shall only mention Paris, Lisle, and their principal sea-ports, Brest, Toulon, &c.

Lisle, in French Flanders, is thought to be the most regular and strongest fortification in Europe, and was the master-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garrisoned with above 10,000 regulars; and for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of silk, cambrick and camblets, are very considerable; and its inhabitants amount to about 60,000. [*Pink.*]

Moving southward, we come to the Isle of France; the capital of which, and of the whole kingdom, is Paris. The population of Paris, according to Guthrie, does not exceed 7 or 800,000; according to Zimmermann 680,000: Young makes the number still less.

Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the university, and that which was formerly called the town. The city is old Paris; the universiry and the town are the new. Paris is said to be the paradise of

splendour and dissipation. The tapestry of the Gobelines* is unequalled for beauty and richness. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itself; and the institution of the French academy far exceeds any thing of the kind in England, or elsewhere. The Thuilleries, the palace of Orleans, or, as it is called, Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are shewn, the royal palace, the king's library, the guild-hall, and the hospital for the invalids, are superb to the highest degree. The city of Paris is said to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French noblesse at Paris take up a great deal of room with their court-yards and gardens; and so do their convents and churches. The streets are very narrow and the houses very high, many of them seven stories. They are chiefly built with free stone, from quarries, which, like catacombs, run in various directions under the streets; so that an earthquake might completely bury the city. [*Pinkerton.*] The river Seine runs through the centre of the city, but it is too far distant from the sea for the purpose of navigation; over it are many stone and wooden bridges. The police of Paris, before the revolution, was so well attended to, that quarrels, accidents or felonies, seldom happened; and strangers, from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever so uncommon, met with the most polite treatment. The streets were patrolled at night by horse and foot, so judiciously stationed, that no offender could escape their vigilance. They likewise visited the publicans precisely at the hour of 12 at night, to see that the company were gone; for in Paris no liquor could be had after that time. The publick roads in France were under the same excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, (now abolished) prevented robberies in that kingdom; but for the same reason, when robberies did happen, they were always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller.

The late revolution has little impaired the city. On the contrary, the plunder of other countries has enlarged and adorned the publick collections. Many individuals have been greatly enriched; new and beautiful streets and squares have enlarged the place. The population is probably not more than 400,000, though some have estimated it at 600,000. [*Pinkerton.*]

The environs of Paris are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine seats, small towns and villages; some of them being scattered on the edges of lofty mountains, rising from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Versailles, which stands twelve miles from Paris though magnificent and expensive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furnish, is properly a collection of buildings, each of exquisite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and sublime of that art. The gardens and water-works, (which are supplied by means of prodigious engines across the Seine at Marli, about three miles distance) are astonishing proofs of the fer-

* One *Goblei*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the first who settled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the house has retained his name ever since; and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, established that valuable manufactory.

tile genius of man, and highly worthy of a stranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taste and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amusement of a luxurious court.

Brest is a small but very strong town, upon the English channel, with a most spacious and fine fortified road and harbour, the best and safest in all the kingdom: Its entrance, however, is said to be difficult, by reason of many rocks lying under water. At Brest is a court of admiralty, an academy for sea affairs, docks and magazines for all kinds of naval stores, rope-yards, store-houses, &c. insomuch that it may now be termed the capital receptacle for the navy of France, and is admirably well adapted for that end. Its population is 30,000.

Louis XIV. rendered *Toulon*, from a pitiful village, a sea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour, for the reception and protection of the navy royal. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ships pass from one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the spacious outer harbour. Its arsenal, established also by that king, has a particular store-house for each ship of war, its guns, cordage, &c. being separately laid up. Here are spacious work-shops for blacksmiths, joiners, carpenters, locksmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk, of stone, is 320 toises or fathoms in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular store-houses, and contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order.

Lyons, before the revolution, had 100,000 inhabitants. It was an opulent city. Its chief manufactures were articles of luxury. This place was peculiarly attached to the ancient government, and averse to the new order of things. The Jacobins besieged, captured, and after the most terrible massacres, ordered the town to be demolished. The decree was executed only in part, but Lyons will probably never regain her ancient wealth and grandeur. Commerce, once banished, seldom returns.

Marseilles and Bordeaux have each a population of 80,000, Amiens of 40,000, Nantes 56,000, Orleans 40,000, Strasburg 40,000: The spire of the cathedral is 574 feet high. [*Pinkerton.*] The other principal towns in France are mentioned in the Table.

Religion.] The established religion of this kingdom, before the late revolution, was the Roman Catholick; and since the year 1685, in which the edict of Nantes was repealed, greatly to the prejudice of the kingdom, no other christian sect was legally tolerated. In some parts of the kingdom, at Bordeaux and Metz, Jews were tolerated under certain restrictions. The sect of Jansenists were very numerous. The Gallican church was always able to defend its liberties against the encroachments of papal power; and it adopted only such parts of the canon law as did not militate against its rights. The bishopricks and prebends were entirely in the gift of the king. No other Catholick state, except those of Italy, had so numerous a clergy as France: There were in this kingdom so late as 1784, 18 archbishops, 111 bishops, 166,000 clergymen, 5,400 convents, containing 200,000

persons devoted to monastick life.* The number of the clergy were then, however, greatly decreasing; and, according to some statements, they did not amount to more than 130,000 persons. The revenues amounted 121 millions of livres, but they were subject to heavy taxation. The income of the bishops alone was estimated at 6,000,000 of livres. Every diocese had a court, called *bureau diocesain*, the jurisdiction of which respected the contributions payable by the clergy, and was limited to sums under 20 livres. From these courts appeal might be made to nine *chambres ecclesiastiques superieures*.

The first national assembly, in their new constitution, retained the Roman Catholick religion in France, allowing religious liberty to all other sects. By the laws of that constitution, no man was to be molested for his opinions, nor interrupted in the exercise of his religion. The territorial possessions of the Gallican church were claimed as national property, and disposed of through the medium of a paper money, called assignats, for the creditors of the state; and the clergy made dependent upon pensionary establishments paid out of the national treasury; out of which also were paid the expenses of worship, the religious, and the poor. All monastick establishments were suppressed; but the friars and nuns were allowed to observe their vows, and nuns optionally to remain in their convents, or retire upon pensions.

The clergy were elective by the people, and took an oath to observe the laws of the new constitution.† They notified to the bishop of Rome their union in doctrine, paid him no fees, nor acknowledged any subordination to his authority. They were supplied with lodgings upon their livings, whereon they were obliged to reside and perform the duties of their office. They voted as active citizens, and were eligible to some lay-offices in the districts, but to no principal ones.

The whole country was divided into nine metropolitan circles, had a metropolitan bishop with a synod in each, besides one for Paris. The metropolitan bishop was confirmed by the eldest bishop in his circle. Appeals were made from the bishops to these synods.

A bishop was appointed to each of the eighty-three *departments*, which formed so many dioceses. They were appointed by the electoral assembly of the department, and confirmed by the metropolitan bishop, but must have held an ecclesiastical office fifteen years. The salaries were from 500l. to 840l. per annum. Each diocese had also a *seminary*, with three vicars, and a vicar-general to prepare students for holy orders, and these vicars formed a council for the bishop.

But this new constitution of the church was of short duration; it seems to have been only a preparatory step to what soon after followed, the absolute proscription of the christian religion. There is no doubt but the party which has been ultimately victorious in France, had this in view from the beginning of the revolution, as well as the

* Since the revolution, all religious houses have been suppressed, and their immense funds appropriated to publick uses. The revenues of the ecclesiasticks of all kinds amounted to 6,000,000l. sterling.

† Many of the clergy, called refractory priests, from a conscientious refusal of this oath, have been ejected from their benefices, and many of the popular curates made bishops.

destruction of the monarchy; but Bonaparte has re-established the catholick religion in that country. In their publick shows and festivals the people have been accustomed to witness the most shocking indignities, committed both against natural and revealed religion; and if the success of their rulers had been proportionate to the ardour of their zeal, all regard to either would have been banished from the minds of the people.

The *Protestants*, who are greatly increasing, amount to 2,500,000. There are already many regular congregations; viz. German Lutherans, French and Swiss Calvinists, Bohemian Anabaptists, and Walloon or Flemish Diffidents, besides many chapels for the ambassadors. It also contains many Jews.

Character.] The customs and manners of the French are in some degree familiar to all readers. The most pleasing part of their character is politeness, vivacity and gaiety. A Frenchman regards care as a mortal poison. On the other hand they have some dismal traits of character. Ancient and recent events combine to prove them sanguinary and hard-hearted. The violent outrages, so frequent in the revolution, had little effect on the gaiety of their spirits. Paris has still continued one of the merriest cities in the world. When torrents of blood were flowing in one street, the theatres were crowded in another; when screams of massacre and death resounded in one part, in other places nothing was heard but the riot of pleasure.

The purity of marriage is so often profaned, as to be proverbial. Constant divorces have neither established domestick felicity, nor the chastity of the sexes. Life itself is an amusement; diversions are infinitely various; twenty theatres in Paris are open every evening.

[*Pinkerton.*]

Revenue and Expenditure.] From a statement of the annual revenue and expenditure of France, made out by M. Neckar, the first minister of finances, and delivered by him to the assembly of the States General on the 4th May, 1789, it appears that the revenue for the current year amounted to 475,294,000 livres, equal to 19,803,909l. sterling; and that the expenditure for the same period amounted to 531,205,390 livres, equal to 22,138,167l. sterling; leaving a deficiency of revenue, of 2,343,291l. sterling.

The revenue in the year 1788, before the revolution, was 20 millions and a half sterling; and its ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue five millions and a half.

The publick debt, in 1784, was 141,666,000l. sterling.

The *Prospectus* of a work on the *Finances* of France, published at Paris in the summer of 1795, contains some ingenious calculations concerning the debts of the French Republick, compared with their securities or mortgages; of which the result is as follows:

France contains 28,000 square leagues, of which 25 are equal to a degree, or 2280 toises; each square league contains 3850 acres, and of course the sum total of these acres *(arpents)* amounts to 105,400,000 acres. The necessary deduction being made for lands, morasses, rivers, rocks, &c. the average value of an acre of fruitful ground may be rated at 250 livres, which makes the whole landed property of France amount to 15,800 millions of livres. The sum of the inscrip-

tions registered in the *Great Book*, which contains all the ancient debts of the state, amounts to 7000 millions, and that of the issued assignats, to 13,000 millions; 2,500 millions of which have been burnt.

The sum total of the debts of the republick is	17,500 millions.
Value of the landed property	15,700 do.
There exists, therefore, a deficiency of	1,800 do.

The national debt of France may now be considered as extinguished; and the revenue is in an incalculable state. The latest accounts make it about 25,000,000l. sterling. The current money of France is estimated at 90,000,000l. sterl.; that of Great-Britain, at 40,000,000l.

France has been enriched by the immense spoils of her conquered provinces; and her generals vie with the Romans in wealth and luxury. [*Pinkerton.*]

Military and Marine Strength.] In the art of gunnery and fortification, the French exceed any other nation in the world. A military academy has long existed for training up 500 young gentlemen in the knowledge of all branches of this destructive art. In 1784 (in a time of peace) the whole French army, consisting of infantry, cavalry, miners and engineers amounted to 212,924. In 1792 (a time of war) the troops of the line and volunteer national guards amounted to 400,000; of which number, 271,000 were then in actual service. The late wars in which France has been engaged, have swelled her armies at least, on paper, to more than a million. Their real amount, it is supposed, however, has never exceeded 600,000 effective men: The French have swelled the number to intimidate their enemies.

In 1785, France had 256 ships of war, of which 72 were of the line, and 74 frigates. Since the revolution, her navy has been increased to upwards of 100 ships of the line, with a vast number of frigates. But the signal victories obtained by the fleets of Great-Britain over those of France, during the late and present war, has greatly weakened her naval power, which cannot easily be regained. About 20 ships of the line constitute the maritime power of France, being not above one fourth of its former extent. [*Pinkerton.*] The chief ports of the navy are those of Toulon, Brest, Port Louis, Rochefort, Havre-de-Grace and Cherbourg.

Government.] The government of France, after passing through almost all the conceivable forms, in the course of 14 years, is now imperial, under the late General BONAPARTE, a native of Corsica, with the title of Emperor Napoleone I.

The origin, progress and issue of the French Revolution, which has interested and convulsed the world, are subjects of too great importance and magnitude, to be treated of, even in a summary manner, in a system of geography; and in order to be done impartially and well, requires an extent and accuracy of information, not at present, perhaps, attainable. For these reasons all historical observations are omitted, and the reader is referred to works professedly written upon the French Revolution.

FRENCH ISLANDS.

THE islands around the coast of France are small and unimportant, except *Corsica*, which now makes a department of France.

CORSICA

LIES opposite to the Genoese continent, between the Gulf of Genoa and the Island of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble stand which the inhabitants made for their liberty against their Genoese tyrants, and afterwards against the base and ungenerous efforts of the French to enslave them, than from any advantage they enjoy, from nature or situation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, chesnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has also some cattle and horses, and is plentifully supplied, both by sea and rivers, with fish. Bastia, the capital, is a place of some strength; though other towns of the island, that were in possession of the malecontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified. Ajaccio, a town on this island, is the birth place of the Emperor of France, NAPOLEONE BONAPARTE. He was born in 1767.

Till 1794, this island belonged to the French, from whom it was, at this period, taken by the English. It has since been retaken by the French.

After the capture of this island, the commissioners of the French Republick reported to the Convention the following description of it: "Corsica, by its insular position, by the nature of its soil and climate, by the manners of its inhabitants, differs entirely from every other department of France. No other presents, as it does, a thin population of 150,000 souls, spread over an extent of 560 square leagues; no other exhibits a soil so rugged, so mountainous, so difficult to traverse in every sense; no other shews inhabitants so poor, so little industrious in every art, especially in commerce and agriculture, and at the same time so passionately fond of arms, of an idle and wandering course of life. No other is so little advanced in all kinds of science, especially in the practice and theory of Government, in the knowledge and execution of the Laws and the Constitution."

HYERES.

THE islands of this name, near Toulon, have a barren and naked appearance, and only present some melancholy pines. [*Young.*] They however contain some botanick riches, and may claim the fame of being Homer's isle of Calypso.

OLERON.

THIS isle is on the western coast, 14 miles long and 2 broad, celebrated for a code of maritime laws, issued by Richard I. king of England, of whose French territory this isle made a part.

RE, YEU AND BELLISLE

ARE inconsiderable islands along the coast.

USHANT, OR OUESSANT,

IS remarkable as the farthest western head land of France, about 12 miles from the continent, and nine in circumference, with several hamlets and about 600 inhabitants.

NETHERLANDS.

THE seventeen provinces, which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low Countries, from their situation in respect to Germany.

EXTENT, SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

	Miles.		
Length	360	between	49° 25′ and 53° 25′ North latitude.
Breadth	260		2° 5′ to 7° 10′ E. lon. from London.

They are bounded by the German sea on the north; by Germany, east; by Lorraine, Champagne, and Picardy in France, south; and by the British channel and part of Picardy, west.

The whole of this country was nearly conquered by the Romans, and that part which lies nearest to France remained in their subjection till the decline of that empire; after which it came under the power of the Francs, and was gradually divided into provinces, forming so many different states. The number of provinces are generally reckoned *seventeen;* there are, in fact, *eighteen,* but Gelder and Zutphen being politically united by the Dutch states, they are still called seventeen; and the United States of Holland are called *the seven,* though in truth they are *eight* provinces.

All these provinces became united in the 16th century, under the sovereignty of Charles V. and continued till the northern provinces revolted from Philip II. under the conduct of the prince of Orange, and entered into a treaty at Utrecht for their mutual defence in 1579. After the loss of many lives, they were at last acknowledged free and independent states, and have since been styled the United Provinces.

In the 17th and 18th centuries France became possessed of Cambresis, Artois, part of Flanders, of Hainaut, of Namur, and Luxemburg. The Dutch also seized on part of Flanders, of Brabant and of Limburg. The upper part of Gelderland was ceded to Prussia in the year 1713, and is thence called Prussian Gelderland. The rest of the provinces have fallen to the imperial House of Austria, with an obligation on the part of the emperor to preserve their ancient laws. Such was the state of these provinces previous to the late revolution in

Europe. The victorious arms of France have since subjugated nearly the whole of them, and they are now, politically and geographically speaking, in an *indescribable* state. We are therefore constrained to describe them as they existed previous to the revolution.

We shall, for the sake of perspicuity, and to avoid repitition, treat of the seventeen provinces under two great divisions: First, the *Northern*, which contains the seven United Provinces, usually known by the name of Holland: Secondly, the *Southern*, containing the Austrian and French Netherlands.

HOLLAND, OR THE SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES.

Extent, Divisions, and Possessions.	Square Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns, and Inhabitants.
Between 51° 20′ and 53° 30′ N. lat. 2°—7° E. long.	10,000	2,758,632 in 1785.	113 Towns—1400 Villages.
1. Province of Gelder. Subdivisions.	1,840		20 Towns in all.
Nimeguen			Nimeguen 12,000
Arnheim			Arnheim
Zutphen			Zutphen
2. Holland, viz.	2,000	98,000	Amsterdam 212,000
North-Holland			Rotterdam 50,000
South-Holland			Hague 37,000
West-Friesland			Leyden 48,000
			Haerlem 39,000
			Delft 20,000
			Dordrecht 19,000
3. Zealand.	480	85,000	37 Towns—400 Villages.
Part of East Scheldt			5 Towns—110 Villages.
Part of West do.			Utrecht 30,000
4. Utrecht.	512	75,000	Middleburg 24,000
The Towns			Vlissingen (Flushing) 8,000
The flat Country			Zirkzee 10,500
5. Friesland.	880	140,000	11 Towns—306 Villages.
The Towns			Leuwarden
Ostfriesland			Francker
Westergo			
Zeven Wonden			
6. Overyssel.	1,792		Deventer
Sallard			Zwool
Twent			
Vollenhoven			
7. Groeningen.	640	100,000	Groeningen
Town of Groeningen			Delfzyl
Ommeland			3 Towns—165 Villages.
Country of Drenthe, Under the protection of the U. Provinces			Koeronden (Fortress) 37 Villages.
Lands of the Generality, commonly called Dutch Brabant	2,000	435,000	Bois le Duc 12,000
			Breda 9,500
			Bergen op Zoom 6,500
			Maestricht 18,000
			Venloo
			Sluis
			Hulst 2,500

POSSESSIONS.

1. In Asia. The coasts of the island of Java; the capital of of which is Batavia, the seat of the governour general of all the East-Indian settlements of the Dutch. 2. Some settlements on the coasts of Sumatra. 3. The greatest part of the Molucca or Spice Islands, chiefly Amboyna, Banda, Ternate, Tidor, Motyr, Bachian; settlements or factories on the island of the Celebes, &c. 4. On the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel; Sedraipatam, Bimlipatam, Tegapatam, Cochin and Cananmore; factories at Surat, Petra, &c, also in the Gulf of Persia, at Gomron, Bassora, &c. 5. On the island of Ceylon: The chief place is Columbo; they have, besides, Trinconomale, Janapatam, Negambo, and a great number of lodges or factories.

2. In Africa. 1. The Cape of Good Hope, a large settlement, of which the Capetown, with its fortress, is the capital. There is also a French colony at the Cape, called Nouvelle Rochele. The governour of the Cape does not depend on the governour of Batavia, but is under the immediate control of the states of Holland. 2. George de la Mina, and other fortresses and factories in Guinea.

3. In America. 1. The islands of St. Eustatia, Saba, Curracoa. 2. The colonies of Essequibo, Demerara, Surinam, and Berbice, on the continent of Guiana.

Rivers and Harbours.] The rivers are an important consideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largest and finest rivers in Europe; the Mease, the Scheldt, and the Vecht. There are many small rivers that join these, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the best are those of Rotterdam, Helvoetsluys, and Flushing; that of Amsterdam, though one of the largest and safest in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large vessels cannot pass without being lightened.

Wealth and Commerce.] The Seven United Provinces afford a striking proof that unwearied and persevering industry is capable of conquering every disadvantage of climate and situation. The air and the water are here equally bad: The soil produces naturally scarcely any thing but turf; and the possession of this very soil is disputed by the ocean, who, rising considerably above the level of the land, can only be prevented by strong and expensive dykes, from overflowing a spot which seems to be stolen from his natural domains. Notwithstanding these difficulties, which might seem insurmountable to a less laborious race of inhabitants, the infinite labours of the patient Dutchmen have rendered this small, and seemingly insignificant territory, in fact, one of the richest spots in Europe, both with respect to population and property. In other countries which are possessed of a variety of natural productions, we are not surprised to find manufactures employed in multiplying the riches which the bounty of the soil bestows. But to see, in a country like Holland, large woollen manufactories, where there are scarce any flocks; numberless artists employed in metals, where there is no mine; thousands of saw mills, where there is scarce any forests; an immense quantity of corn ex-

ported from a country where there is not agriculture enough to support one half of its inhabitants, is what must strike every attentive observer with admiration. Among the most valuable natural productions of the United Netherlands, we may reckon their excellent cattle. Of vegetables they export large quantities of madder, which is chiefly cultivated in the province of Zealand: The island of Schouwen produces annually 2,000,000lb. Formerly England bought of this article to the value of almost 300,000l. sterling. The most considerable revenue arises from the fisheries. Sir William Temple says, that in his time the Dutch fisheries yielded a clear profit of many millions of florins. At present, however, some branches of the fisheries, for instance the whale fishery, are become so insignificant, that, in order to keep them up in some degree, the states are obliged to allow a bounty of 30 florins for every man employed in the whale fishery. This branch which formerly employed 250 vessels, requires, at present, little more than 100. The number of ships formerly engaged in the herring fishery is reduced from upwards of 2000 to less than 200, and the profits earned by them do not quite amount to one million of florins. This fishery maintains, however, even now, no less than 20,000 people. Cod, another important article of the fishery, is caught near the Dogge Bank, and near the coast of Holland. About 140 vessels are employed in that branch.

The Dutch were formerly in possession of the coasting trade and freight of almost all other trading nations: They were also the bankers for all Europe; advantages by which they have gained immense sums. Yet these advantages did not continue to be so lucrative, when the other European nations began to open their eyes, so far as to employ their own shipping in their trade, and to establish banks of their own. Notwithstanding these deductions, the Dutch trade is still immense: In consequence of their vast wealth, they regulate still the exchange for all Europe; and their country is, as it were, the universal warehouse of the commodities of every quarter of the globe.

The trade of Holland extends to every country of the world; and, in some of its branches, they have totally excluded their European competitors. To begin with the countries of Europe:—The trade of the Dutch to Russia is considerable: They exported to Petersburg alone in 1751, goods to the value of 420,000 rubles, besides what was sent to Archangel, Riga, &c. They imported goods from Russia to the value of about 300,000 rubles. The exports of the Dutch to Dantzick, the centre of the Polish trade, amounted, in 1771, to upwards of five millions of florins; their imports from Dantzick to 2,500,000 florins. A considerable trade is carried on with Sweden and Denmark. The Dutch trade in the Baltick, if not equal to the English, is, at least, next to it in importance; yet, in proportion as the other European nations are endeavouring to share in the profits of the trade of the Baltick sea, the profits of the Dutch have naturally decreased. In the Atlantick Ocean, the Dutch trade is of very great extent: From Portugal and Spain they draw ready money, but to France, on the contrary, they pay a large balance of it. They sup-

ply Italy with most European and India goods : Their trade to the Levant, though at present on the decline, is still very profitable. A particular board of the Levant trade was erected in 1624. The good fortune of the Dutch, in rendering themselves the exclusive masters of the spice trade, and of very large territories in the East-Indies, will enable them to support for a long while a very extensive trade in Europe. Their East-India company was erected in the year 1602, by uniting several small trading societies into one, to whom the states granted the privilege of an exclusive trade. The original capital did not exceed 6,459,840 florins, divided into shares of 3,000 florins each : With this small sum they formed settlements, and conquered several provinces in Asia, much larger than the Seven United Provinces together. The company is now divided into six chambers of proprietors, established at Amsterdam, Middleburg, Delf, Rotterdam, Hoorn, and Enkuizen, each of which is under the management of their own directors, called Bewindhebbers. The Stadtholder is the first of the directors of each chamber, and consequently the head of the East-India Company. The governour general of the Dutch possessions in the East-Indies is appointed by the company, and, residing at Batavia, is invested with very ample powers : He is president of the council of Batavia, called the court or council of India. Among the monopolies of the East-India Company, the spice trade comprehending the articles of cloves, mace, nutmeg, cinnnamon, &c. is the most valuable, and forms a very great branch of the Asiatick as well as European commerce of Holland : 750,000lb. of cloves are annually sold in India, and 360,000 carried to Europe : The company pays on the spot only eight stivers per pound, but the freight and other charges raise this price to 43 stivers, and the company sells it at no less than 75 stivers. 250,000lb. of nutmeg, the produce of the island of Banda, are sold in Europe, and 100,000lb. in India : The prime cost is somewhat more than one stiver per pound : Including charges, the pound stands the company in about 25 stivers, and is sold by the company at upwards of 50 stivers west of the Cape of Good Hope, and at about 40 stivers east of it. Of cinnamon 200,000lb. are sold in India, and 400,000 in Europe. The Java coffee is the best we know of after that of Mecca in Arabia. Other great branches of this trade are rice, cotton, pepper, &c. articles of great importance, but not in the exclusive possession of the Dutch. The whole profits of the trade of the East India Company is computed at 12,700,000 florins annually ; but this statement seems to fall short of the real produce : Yet, upon the whole, the affairs of the East-India Company are very much on the decline. The Dutch have hitherto been the only European nation permitted to carry on a direct trade to Japan : the profits of this trade, however, have also declined, and are supposed to amount, at present, to no more than 20,000 florins. The West-India Company is by no means so considerable as the East-India Company. It carries on a trade both to the West-Indies and to the coast of Guinea ; on the latter chiefly for slaves. Distinct from this company are the two companies which trade to Surinam and Berbice : The Stadtholder is the head of all these trading companies.

The town of Amsterdam has more than one half of the trade of Holland; and in this celebrated centre of immense commerce, a bank is established of that species called a Giro Bank, of very great wealth, and greater credit.

In Holland, the inland trade is very much facilitated by means of the numerous canals which cross the country in every direction. The number of manufactures established in the United Provinces is astonishing. Saardam, for instance, a village in North-Holland, contains about 900 windmills, partly corn mills, partly saw and paper mills and mills for the making of white lead, &c. In former times, the Dutch were the exclusive possessors of several ingenious manufactures and arts; for instance, the refining of camphor and borax, the cutting and polishing of diamonds, the refining of sugar, &c. but at present these mysteries, very few of them excepted, are in the hands of many other nations; to whose commercial ignorance and want of industry in former times, the Dutch were indebted for immense gains, which have decreased with their causes: Among the rest, the woollen manufactory has suffered a prodigious decrease. From these facts it appears, that the Dutch trade is no longer in its ancient flourishing state, to which, even if the frugality and industry of the nation had not been diminished by too great wealth, the rivalship of other nations, and the commercial knowledge of the age, will never suffer it to rise again.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs and Diversions. The Seven United Provinces are perhaps the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. This will appear from the preceding table.

The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch, (for so the inhabitants of the United Provinces are called) seem to be formed by their situation and to arise from their natural wants. Their country, which is preserved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the artificial drains, with which it is every where intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheese, are produced by a constant attention to the laborious arts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the sea, by their herring fisheries; for they dispose of most of their valuable fishes to the English, and other nations, for the sake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatick, slow dispositions, both of body and mind.

Their tradesmen in general are reckoned honest in their dealings, and very sparing of their words. Smoking tobacco is practised by old and young of both sexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, it is said no people are so unsociable.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs the Dutch are certainly the most expert of any people; as to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no less necessary science of preserving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to spend less than his income, be that what it will; nor does it often enter into the heads of this sagacious people, that the common course of the ex-

penses should equal the revenue ; and when this happens, they think at least they have lived that year to no purpose ; and the report of it used to discredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not so universal among the Dutch as it was formerly ; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewise practised by many of their fashionable ladies, and some of them discover more propensity to gallantry than was known here in former times. No country can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants, whose lot, if not riches, is at least a comfortable sufficiency ; and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midst of a world of taxes and contributions, such as no other country experiences, they flourish and grow rich. From this systematick spirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the most obstinate perseverance they succeeded in the stupendous works of draining their country of those immense deluges of water, that had overflowed so large a part of it during many ages, while at the same time they brought under their subjection and command the rivers and seas that surround them, by dykes of incredible thickness and strength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and safety of their territories against the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable sluices ; by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most rapid inundations are let in, and they become in a few hours inaccessible. From that frugality and perseverance, by which they have been so much characterised, they were enabled though labouring under great difficulties, not only to throw off the Spanish yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the most tender parts, by seizing her rich galleons, and forming new establishments in Africa and the East and West-Indies, at the expense of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a despicable province, a most powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the rise of their military and marine establishments, maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not less than 150,000 men, and upwards of 80 ships of the line. But a spirit of frugality being now less universal among them, the rich traders and mechanicks begin to approximate to the luxuries of the English and French dressing and living ; and their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from those of the English, who seem to have borrowed from them the neatness of their drinking-booths, skittle and other grounds, and small pieces of water, which form the amusements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand-organs, and other musical inventions. They are the best skaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to see the crowds in a hard frost upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

Language.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupt dialect of the German; but the people of fashion speak English and French.

Learning and learned Men.] Erasmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, stand at the head almost of learning itself, as Boerhaave does of Medicine. Haerlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magistrates keep two copies of a book entitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koster, in 1440; and the most elegant editions of the classicks came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controversial divinity, which insinuated itself so much into the state, that before principles of universal toleration prevailed, it had almost proved fatal to the government; witness the violent disputes about Arminianism, free will, predestination, and the like. Besides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius and Burman stand at the head of their numerous commentators upon the classicks.

The scientifick and literary state of Holland seems to be involved in the decline of its political consequence. Its universities were formerly much more attractive and frequented, but their improvements have not kept pace with the progress and the wants of the age. They are five in number, at Leyden, Franeker, Utrecht, Groeningen, and Harderwyck; and some of their regulations are deserving of much praise. Besides the universities, there are several good schools in the United Provinces, among which the Academical Gymnasium, or Athenaeum of Amsterdam, is entitled to particular notice. Many respectable scientifick societies are established in Holland, and one at Batavia. The publick libraries of the universities were more celebrated while scarce books and manuscripts were held in more general estimation; but in utility and extent they are not to be compared with the great libraries in other countries: Yet numerous private libraries supply their deficiencies, and facilitate the researches of the studious. Publick and private collections of natural curiosities, antiquities, paintings, &c. are very numerous in a country where the habit of collecting has been rendered general by the spirit of commerce.

Antiquities and Curiosities, natural and artificial.] The prodigious dykes, some of which are said to be 17 ells in thickness; mounds and canals, constructed by the Dutch, to preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it formerly suffered so much, are stupendous and hardly to be equalled. A stone quarry near Maestricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of subterraneous palace, supported by pillars twenty feet high. The stadthouse of Amsterdam is perhaps the best building of that kind in the world: It stands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inside is equally convenient and magnificent. Several museums, containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the university of Leyden; such as the effigies of a peasant of Russia, who swallowed a knife ten inches in length, and is said to have lived eight years after it was cut out of his stomach; but the truth of this seems doubtful.

A shirt, made of the entrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muscles and tendons of the human body, curiously set up, by professor Stalpert Vander-Weil.

Cities, Towns, and other Edifices, publick and private.] Amsterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to be, next to London, the most commercial city in the world. Its conveniences for commerce, and the grandeur of its publick works, are almost beyond description. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that is every where observed within doors. This city, however, labours under two great disadvantages; bad air, and the want of fresh wholesome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain water in reservoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth. The Hague, though but a village, is the seat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the resort of foreign ambassadors and strangers of all distinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapness of its provisions, and the politeness of its inhabitants. It is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleasure and politicks. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their universities. Saardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the workshop where Peter the Great of Muscovy, in person, served his apprenticeship to ship-building, and laboured as a common handicraft. The upper part of Gelderland is subject to Prussia, and the capital city Gelder.

Inland Navigation, Canals, and manner of travelling.] The usual way of passing from town to town is by covered boats, called *treckscuits*, which are dragged along the canals by horses, on a slow uniform trot, so that passengers reach the different towns where they are to stop, precisely at the appointed instant of time. This method of travelling, though to strangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of these canals, an extensive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of the whole earth are conveyed, at a small expense, into various parts of Germany, and the Austrian and French Netherlands. A treckscuit is divided into two different apartments, called the *roof* and the *ruim*; the first for gentlemen, and the other for common people, who may read, smoke, eat, drink, or converse with people of various nations, dresses and languages. Near Amsterdam and other large cities, a traveller is astonished when he beholds the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined, for miles together, with elegant, neat country houses, seated in the midst of gardens and pleasure grounds, intermixed with figures, busts, statues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects of amusement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families in fine weather spend much of their time in these little temples, smoking, reading, or viewing the passengers, to whom they appear complaisant and polite.

Government.] From the great confederation of Utrecht, made in the year 1579, till the revolution in 1794, the seven United Provinces must be looked upon as one political body, united for the preservation of the whole, of which each single province was governed by its own laws, and exercised most of the rights of a sovereign state. In consequence of the union, the Seven Provinces guaranteed each other's rights, they made war and peace, they levied taxes, &c. in their joint capacity; but as to internal government, each province was independent of the other provinces, and of the supreme power of the republick. They sent deputies, chosen out of the provincial states, to the general assembly, called the *States General*, which was invested with the supreme legislative power of the confederation. Each province had the right to send as many deputies as it pleased, but it had only one voice in the assembly of the states. According to the last regulations, previous to the revolution, that assembly was composed of 58 deputies. In affairs of great consequence, such as declaring war and making peace, a secret committee was chosen out of these deputies, called the *Secrette Besoigne*, in which the province of Holland had two voices.

At the head of this republican government there was usually the prince, stadtholder or governour, who exercised a very considerable part of the executive power of the state. This dignity, though hereditary, and of the greatest weight in the state, cannot be considered otherwise than the first office entrusted to a subject of the republick, and falls considerably short of the most limited sovereignty. The stadtholder was not entitled to a voice in the supreme legislative assembly, but he might be present at their meetings. He was captain-general, and high admiral of the land and naval forces of the republick; and he enjoyed, before the late revolution, a very ample patronage in consequence of this military command. He was president of the East and West-India companies, and stadtholder of each single province, but with unequal prerogatives. In some of the provinces he had the exclusive right of nominating the magistrates of the towns, and the power of pardoning criminals; in some he had a share in the legislative power, and a voice in the assembly of the states of the province; in others he had either not all or none of these rights. The party of the patriots, for some years before the revolution, had been intent on curtailing and restraining within narrow limits the power of the stadtholder. Another great dignity in the republick, the influence of which was usually opposed to the stadtholder's interest, was the place of Grand Pensionary, formerly called the advocate of the republick. The Grand Pensionary was, by virtue of his place, perpetual member of the highest legislative assemblies, the States General and the secret committee.

The departments which were employed in such publick affairs as concerned all the Seven Provinces were the following: 1. The council of state composed of twelve members, chosen by the Seven Provinces, under the presidency of the stadtholder. It had its treasurer and secretary, and was next in rank to the States General. 2. The department of the revenue, consisting of fourteen members. 3. The army and navy treasury: This department had the revision of the ac-

counts of the military expenditure, and was composed of four members. Each province was governed by the assembly of its respective states. These states were, in almost all the provinces, composed of the nobility, or great landholders and of the towns. In the assembly of the states of the province of Holland the Great Pensionary presided: The towns were governed by their own elective magistrates, whose jurisdiction was confined within the walls of the towns: Certain districts in the provinces had their courts of justice, and each province had a general court, to which appeal lay from the inferior courts and the town magistrates. These tribunals were called by the name of the provinces in which they were established, *de Hof van Holland, de Hof van Gelderen*, &c. Each of them made use of a particular code of laws, adapted to the ancient customs and rights of the provinces; where these laws were deficient, recourse was to be had to the Roman law.

After the French entered Holland, and it was evident that the whole country would fall under their power, the stadtholder, on the 19th of January, 1795, embarked from Scheveling in an open boat, with only three men to navigate her, and reached Harwich in England in safety. The government, since this revolution, has experienced several changes, and is not yet settled.

Finances.] The publick revenue, before the revolution, was considered in two different points of view, as it was raised for the use of the whole confederation, or for the expenditure of each single province. The annual income of all the Seven Provinces formerly amounted to upwards of forty-five millions of florins, or nearly 4,500,000l. sterling. The revenue of the province of Holland, which was by far the richest, and the most powerful of the Seven, was computed at upwards of twenty millions of florins. Thirteen millions and a half of this sum, making the ordinary revenue of Holland, arose from the house and land tax, and from the excise and stamp duties; the remainder, or the extraordinary revenue of this province, was made up by contributions of the hundredth, two hundredth and four hundreth parts of the income of lands, annuities and capitals. The general finances of the republick, for the support of the whole political body, arose, 1. From the revenues of Dutch Brabant, or the lands of the generality: 2. From the duties on exports and imports: 3. From confiscated goods, and the sums paid by the privileged trading companies: 4. From the yearly contributions of the different provinces, according to the following rates: Of every 100 florins contributed,

	Flor.	Stivers.	Doits.
The Province of Guelder paid	5	11	2
——————— Holland	57	14	8
——————— Zealand	9	1	10
——————— Utrecht	5	15	5
——————— Friesland	11	10	11
——————— Overyssel	3	10	8
——————— Groeningen	5	15	6
——————— County of Drenthe	0	19	10
	100	0	0

The debts of the republick, before the revolution, exceeded 2,000 millions of florins. The province of Holland alone owed, in 1768, 450 millions, but almost the whole of this sum to its own subjects; but, on the other side, had lent, on very advantageous conditions, large sums of money to other states. In the year 1781, there were due the following sums:

1. From England	165	million florins.
2. —— France,	170	
3. —— Germany, Denmark, Sweden and Russia,	250	
	585	

The United Provinces drew more than 25 millions per annum from these countries, as the interest on the large capitals lent them.

Army.] In time of peace, the standing army consisted of 3,456 cavalry, and 36,281 infantry. In the year 1784, when Holland was threatened with a war by the emperor, the army was increased to upwards of 50,000 men.

Navy.] The navy of Holland, in 1782, consisted of 42 ships of the line, 43 frigates, and 10 cutters.

Rates.	8	ships of 70—74 guns.	
	22	——— ——64	
	12	——— 50—56	
	14	——— 40—44	
	13	——— 36——	
	16	——— 20—24	Hist. Port. 1783.
(In 1784)	43	ships of the line.	
	43	frigates.	

The five chambers of the admiralty had the management of all naval affairs. The Stadtholder, in the capacity of high admiral of the republick, presided in the five chambers of admiralty. He formerly appointed the flag officers, but this privilege was lately disputed by the States General. He had a tenth share of all the prizes made during a war. The fleet, which was divided into three squadrons, was distributed between the harbours of Amsterdam, called the Texel, and that of Rotterdam, in the province of Holland, and the sea port towns of Zealand.

Religion.] The Calvinist, or reformed religion, till the late revolution, was established in Holland; the Lutheran, the Roman Catholick, many other Christain sects, and the Jews, were tolerated. The Synod of Dordrecht, or Dort, held in 1618, made the strictest notion of predestination an essential article of faith in the Dutch church. None but Calvinists could hold any employment of trust or profit. There was, properly speaking, no difference of rank among the clergy: The church was governed by synods, composed of the ministers and antistes, or presbyters. Besides nine synods for single provinces,

there was one great national synod ; subject, however, to the control of the States General, which were considered as the head of the church. The French and Walloon Calvinist churches had synods of their own. There were, in the Seven Provinces, in 1787, 1579 pastors or ministers of the established church, 90 of the Walloon church, 800 Roman Catholick, 53 Lutheran, 43 Arminian, 312 Anabaptist ministers. In the East-Indies there were 46, and in the West-Indies nine clergymen of the established church. The revolution has produced considerable changes in the state of religion in this country.

General Remarks.] The natural and political situation of the Dutch nation may be compared with the colonies of Canadian beavers, who, by unwearied labour and mutual assistance, are enabled to build secure habitations on the banks of rapid rivers, and to form societies, rendered durable and invincible by the tie of firm union : Yet their wonderful fabrick would, by dissension and separation, soon sink into insignificance or annihilation. When we consider what Holland was before the union of Utrecht, and when we afterwards see the inhabitants of that swampy spot assume, for no inconsiderable period of time, the arbitrum of Europe and the Indies, it is not without regret we witness the decay of their power, that most admirable monument of human exertion and industry. An impartial observer, however, who cannot wish to see the benefits of activity confined to one spot, and extorted from the ignorance and weakness of other nations, will be comforted by the consideration, that Holland's exclusive advantages are lessened by the general increase of industry and happiness throughout all the states of Europe, and not by any of those great calamities or revolutions, which have put a period to the power of other commercial states. Its decline is gentle and gradual : Yet so high was the eminence at which Holland had arrived, that it still possessed great power and consequence when the late revolution took place. It might long have continued to be the centre of union of the great European commerce, and the asylum of religious and civil liberty, if the most dangerous enemies of this state, civil dissensions, and the extinction of publick virtue, had not hastened its gliding down the slope of ruin, and rendered it an easy prey to an insidious neighbour, who is now willingly acknowledged as their master, by a mistaken and corrupted part of the nation.

The Republick and all the United Netherlands are now in a revolutionary state ; and it is impossible to determine what will be their permanent government, or when it will be settled.

History.] These provinces were originally an assemblage of several lordships, dependent upon the kings of Spain ; from whose yoke they withdrew themselves during the reign of Philip II. in the year 1579, under the conduct of the Prince of Orange, and formed the republick now called the Seven United Provinces, or Holland. The office of Stadtholder, or Captain General of the United Provinces, was made hereditary in the Prince of Orange's family, not excepting females, 1747.

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	200	between	49° and 52° north latitude.
Breadth	200		2° and 7° east longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by the United Provinces on the north; by Germany east; by Lorraign, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, south; and by another part of Picardy, and the English sea, west.

This country belonged to three different powers, the Austrians, French and Dutch. Those provinces which belonged to Austria, are now annexed to the Gallick Empire. We shall distinguish the provinces and towns which belonged to each state.

1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	
1. Dutch Brabant.	Boisleduc, Breda, Bergen-op-Zoom	N.
	Grave	N. E.
	Lillo, Steenbergen	N. W.
2. Austrian Brabant	Brussels, E. lon. 4° 6′ N. lat. 50° 50′	
	Louvain, Vilvorden, Landen	in the middle.

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though surrounded by it, and before the late revolution subject to the House of Austria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

Chief Towns	Limburg, E. lon. 6° 5′, N. lat. 50° 37′	Austrian.
	Maestricht, Dalem, Fauquemont or Valkenburg	Dutch.

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	
Austrian Luxemburg.	Luxemburg, E. lon. 6° 8′, N. lat. 49° 45′.	
French Luxemburg.	Thionville, Montmedy	S. E.

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, formerly subject to Austria.

Chief Towns.	Namur, on the Sambre and Maese, E. lon. 4° 50′, N. lat. 50° 30.
	Charleroy on the Sambre.

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	
Austrian Hainault.	Mons, E. lon. 3° 53′, N. lat. 50° 30′.	in the middle.
	Aeth Enguien	
French Hainault.	Valenciennes Bouchain Conde	S. W.
	Landrecy	

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France.	Cambray, E. of Arras, E. lon. 3° 15′, N. lat. 50° 15′.
	Crevecour, S. of Cambray.

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France.	Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe, E. lon. 2° 54′, N. lat. 51° 20′.
	St. Omer, E. of Bologne.
	Aire, S. of St. Omer.
	St. Venant, E. of Aire.
	Bethune, S. E. of Aire.
	Terouen, S. of St. Omer.

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	
Dutch Flanders.	Sluys, N. Axel, N. Hulst, N. Sas van Ghent, N.	
Austrian Flanders.	Ghent, on the Scheldt, E. lon. 3° 36′, N. lat 51°.	
	Bruges	N. W. near the sea.
	Ostend	
	Newport	
	Oudenard, on the Scheldt.	
	Coutray	on the Lis.
	Dixmude	
	Ypres, N. of Lisle.	
	Tournay, on the Scheldt.	
	Menin, on the Lis.	
French Flanders.	Lisle, W. of Tournay.	
	Dunkirk, on the coast E. of Calais.	
	Douay, W. of Arras.	
	Mardike, W. of Dunkirk.	
	St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes.	
	Gravelin, E. of Calais.	

Air, Soil and Produce.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coast of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the seasons more settled, both in winter and summer, than they are in England. The soil and its produce are rich, especially in corn and and fruits. They have abundance of pasture; and Flanders itself has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and some-

times of England. The most barren parts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Austrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce and industry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleasantness of its roads and villages, or the fertility of its land: A strong proof of the advantage, which commerce confers on agriculture. The mere farmer can never become rich, but from his traffick with the merchant. [*Pinkerton.*] The agriculture of this country has been celebrated for 600 years; the period when their commerce and manufactures became eminent. They never allow the land to lie fallow, as, rape, beans, turnips and clover destroy the weeds, enrich the soil, and produce profits.

If it has fallen off in later times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is still a most desirable and agreeable country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, scarcely a single hill in it. Brabant, and the rest of the provinces, consist of little hills and vallies, woods, inclosed grounds, and champaign fields.

Rivers and Canals.] The chief rivers are the Maese, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheldt, Lis, Scarpe, Deule and Dender. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent and Ostend.

Metals and Minerals.] Mines of iron, copper, lead and brimstone, are found in Luxemburg and Limburg, as are some marble quarries; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a species of bituminous fat earth, proper for fuel, with great plenty of fossil nitre.

Inhabitants, Population, Manners, Customs and Diversions.] The Flemings (for so the inhabitants of Flanders and the Austrian Low Countries are generally called) are said to be a heavy, blunt, honest people. Formerly they were known to fight desperately in defence of their country: at present they are in a subjugated and not very pleasing state. The Austrian Netherlands are extremely populous; but authors differ as to their numbers.

Mr. Pinkerton estimates the square miles at 7520, the population at 1,900,000, which is 252 to each square mile; in France there are only 174.

Dress and Language.] The inhabitants of French Flanders are mere Frenchmen and women in both these particulars. The Flemings on the frontiers of Holland dress like the Dutch boors, and their language is the same; but the better sort of people speak French, and dress in the same taste.

Religion.] The established religion here till their revolution, was the Roman Catholick; but Protestants, and other sects, were not molested.

Learning, learned Men and Artists.] The society of Jesuits formerly produced the most learned men in the Austrian Low Countries, in which they had many comfortable settlements. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief pro-

ductions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. Flamingo, or the Fleming's models for heads, particularly those of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry-weaving to themselves.

Universities.] Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omer. The first was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges. By a grant of pope Sextus IV. this university has the privilege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, which right they enjoy, except in Holland.

Antiquities and Curiosities, natural and artificial.] Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in these provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are also found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, seen through all their cities, give evidences of their former grandeur. In 1607, some labourers found 1600 gold coins, and ancient medals of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

Cities.] This article has employed several large volumes, published by different authors, but in times when the Austrian Netherlands were far more flourishing than now.

Ghent is the capital of the province of Flanders, 72 leagues N. of Paris, and 14 E. of Ostend. Its walls are 10 miles in circumference. It has a cathedral and 6 parish churches; the streets are large and the market places spacious. They count 300 bridges in this city, on one of which is the figure in bronze, of a young man, who was commanded to cut off the head of his father, and when he was about to strike, the blade flew off, leaving the haft in his hand; in consequence of which, they were both pardoned: This happened in the year 1371, and a painting of the story is preserved in the town-house. On the town-house is a dragon of copper, brought from Constantinople; the tower is 300 steps high, and is furnished with a handsome clock and musical chimes. The largest bell is said to weigh 11,000 pounds. It has considerable trade in corn, with cloth, linen and silk manufactures, much assisted by two navigable canals; one to Sas de Ghent, the other to Bruges, Ostend, &c, The population is 60,000. Brussels contains 80,000 inhabitants.

Bruges, 13 miles E. of Ostend, holds the second rank among the cities of Flanders. It is about a league and a half in circumference, and advantageously situated in a plain, having by means of canals a navigable communication with Ghent, Ostend, Dunkirk, Sluys, &c. In the 14th century, this city was a place of the greatest trade in Europe. From about the year 1489, Bruges began to decline, and Antwerp became its rival, and soon its superior. It is yet, however, a place of considerable trade, with manufactories of stuff, linen, &c.

Ostend, 76 leagues N. of Paris, is a strong sea port town, with a good harbour surrounded by many forts. It was taken by the French republick the latter end of 1792. They have no fresh water in Ostend, but what is brought in boats from Bruges, and preserved in a great reservoir near the harbour. Lon. 3° 1′ E. Lat. 51° 14′ N.

Ypres or Ipres is only a strong garrison town, 13 leagues E. S. E. of Dunkirk. The same may be said of Charleroy and Namur, which lie in the Austrian Hainault.

Louvain, the capital of the Austrian Brabant, 33 leagues E. of Ostend instead of its flourishing manufactures and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Brussels, called the ornament and delight of the Netherlands, retains somewhat of its ancient manufactures ; and being the residence of the governour or viceroy of the Austrian Netherlands, is a populous, lively place, 11 leagues S. of Antwerp.

Antwerp, the capital of a marquisate in Brabant, is situated in a large plain, on the eastern side of the Scheldt, which has here sufficient depth and width to admit vessels of great burden close to the quay, and even by means of canals cut through the town, vessels may be brought to unload at the very doors. The commerce of this city rather more than two centuries ago, was superior to that of any other state in Europe, 2,500 merchants' vessels arriving in its port in one year ; and it is recorded in the annals of the place, that the value of the merchandize imported in the year 1550 amounted to one hundred and thirty-three millions of gold ; and as a proof of the riches and magnificence of its merchants, they relate that a certain merchant, named John Daens, having lent the emperor Charles V. a million of gold, invited him to dinner ; when, after a royal entertainment, he threw the emperor's bond into the fire made of cinnamon. But since that time when the United Provinces threw of the yoke of the Spanish government, having got possession of the entrance of the Scheldt, they built forts on the sides, and sunk obstructions in the channels to prevent a free navigation ; in consequence of which the commerce of Antwerp has been ruined, and grass grows before the ware-houses of those who had been the greatest merchants in the world. It is still, however, a large and handsome city. The streets are in general wide and straight, and surrounded by a wall and regular fortifications. At the treaty of Munster, when a peace was concluded between Phillip IV. and the United Provinces, when the independance of those provinces was acknowledged and guaranteed, Antwerp seems to have fallen a sacrifice for a peace offering ; for by an article of that treaty, it was agreed, that no large merchant vessel should sail up to Antwerp, without first unloading her cargo in one of the ports of Holland, from whence the merchandize might be conveyed to Antwerp in barges, or small vessels. This gave a death blow to its commerce, since which it never has revived. The late emperor Joseph made a pretence of again opening the navigation of the Scheldt, but for want of resolution, conduct, or power, the scheme proved abortive. The late threatened plan of opening the Scheldt by the French, which was, at least, the ostensible reason for England's taking up arms, is well known. It was taken by the French in November 1792, and the citadel surrendered prisoners of war the 29th of that month ; the French again evacuated it in March following. They retook it in 1794. The population is now 50,000 ; in 1568 it was estimated at 200,000.

Antwerp is 35 leagues from Aix-la-Chapelle, 40 E. N. E. from Calais, and 79 N. from Paris.

It may be observed here, that every gentleman's house is a castle or *château*; and that there are more strong towns in the Netherlands than in all the rest of Europe: but since the decline of their trade, by the rise of the English and Dutch, and we may now add the conquests of the French, these towns are considerably diminished in size, and whole streets are, in appearance, uninhabited. In the Netherlands, provisions are extremely good and cheap. A stranger may dine in Brussels, on seven or eight dishes of meat, for less than a shilling English. Travelling is safe, reasonable and delightful in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad causeway, and run for some miles in a straight line, till they terminate with the view of some noble buildings. At Cassel, in the French Netherlands, may be seen thirty-two towns, itself being on a hill.

Commerce and Manufactures.] The chief manufactures of the French and Austrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neighbours they are yet unrivalled; particularly in that species called cambricks, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. These manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

Constitution and Government.] The Austrian Netherlands before the late revolution, were considered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal house, as being sovereign of the whole, was the sole director and summoning prince. This circle contributed its share to the imposts of the empire, and sent an envoy to the diet, but was not subject to the judicatories of the empire. It was under a governour-general, appointed by the court of Vienna. The face of an assembly, or parliament, for each province, was kept up, and consisted of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who met at Brussels. Each province claimed particular privileges, but they are of very little effect; and the governour seldom or never found any resistance to the will of his court. Every province had a particular governour, subject to the regent; and causes were here decided according to the civil and canon law. The present government is the same as in France, and too late they find, that French fraternity and modern liberty are infinitely more terrible than ancient tyranny.

Revenues.] These formerly arose from the demesne lands and customs; but so much was the trade of the Austrian Flanders reduced that they are said not to have defrayed the expenses of their government. Nor has French extortion furnished any data whence to calculate a permanent revenue. [*Pinkerton.*]

Military Strength.] The troops formerly maintained here by the emperor were chiefly employed in the frontier garrisons. Though, by the barrier treaty, the Austrians were obliged to maintain three fifths of those garrisons, and the Dutch two; yet both of them were miserably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at least 30,000 men, and in time of war above 10,000 more. It has been the misfortune of this country to be often the seat of bloody and destructive wars.

History.] Flanders, originally the country of the ancient Belgæ, was conquered by Julius Cæsar, forty-seven years before Christ; passed into the hands of France, A. D. 412; and was governed by its earls, subject to that crown, from 864 to 1369. By marriage it then came into the house of Austria; but was yielded to Spain in 1556. Shook off the Spanish yoke 1572, and in the year 1725, by the treaty of Vienna, was annexed to the German empire, and remained in this connection until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburg: and would have still possessed them, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the English, in favour of the House of Austria. The places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748, may be seen in the preceding general table of divisions.

It was not long after the settlement of the disturbances in Holland, that an insurrection broke out in the provinces of the Netherlands, belonging to the emperor. The quarrel originated, like those in other countries, about the prerogatives assumed by the emperor, and which were more extensive than his subjects were willing to submit to; and the emperor making use of force to assert his claims, the discontented Brabanters sought refuge in the territories of the United Provinces.

On the part of his imperial majesty, the insurgents were not treated with lenity. A proclamation was issued by count Trautmansdorff, governour of Brussels, intimating, that no quarter should be given them, and that the villages, in which they concealed themselves, should be set on fire. A general Dalton marched with one thousand men to retake the forts, proclaiming that he meant to become master of them by assault, and would put every soul he found in them to the sword.

In opposition to this sanguinary proclamation, the patriots issued a manifesto, in which they declared the emperor to have forfeited his authority by reason of his various oppressions and cruelties, his annulling his oath, and infringing the constitution. Banishment was threatened to such as took part with him; and all were exhorted to take up arms in defence of their country, though strict orders were given that no crowds or mobs should be allowed to pillage; and whoever was found doing so, should be treated as an enemy to his country.

This was dated at Hoogstraten, in Brabant, October the 24th, 1789. Almost every town in Austrian Flanders shewed its determination to oppose the emperor, and the most enthusiastick attachment to military affairs displayed itself in all ranks of men. Even the ecclesiasticks manifested their valour on this occasion; which perhaps was naturally to be expected, as the emperor had been very active in depriving them of their revenues. A formidable army was soon raised, which after some successful skirmishes, made themselves masters of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Malines, and Ostend; so that general Dalton was obliged to retire to Brussels. A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loss of 1,000 men, besides women and children. It reflects indelible disgrace on

the imperial character, as well as on the commanders of the troops, that they committed the most dreadful acts of cruelty on the unhappy objects who fell into their hands. By such barbarous conduct they ensured success to their adversaries ; for the whole countries of Brabant, Flanders and Maes, almost instantly declared in their favour. They published a memorial for their justification, in which they gave, as reasons for their conduct, the many oppressive edicts with which they had been harassed since the death of the empress-queen ; the unwarrantable extension of the imperial prerogatives, contrary to his coronation oath, and which could not be done without perjury on his part ; the violence committed on his subjects, by forcibly entering their houses at midnight, and sending them prisoners to Vienna, to perish in a dungeon, or on the banks of the Danube. Not content with this he had openly massacred his subjects ; he had consigned towns and villages to the flames, and entered into a design of exterminating people who contended only for their rights. These things they owned might be terrible at the time, and easily impose upon weak minds, but " the natural courage of a nation roused by repeated injuries, and animated by despair, would rise superior to those last efforts of vindictive tyranny, and render them as impotent and abortive, as they were wicked and unexampled." For all which reasons they declared themselves INDEPENDENT, *and forever released from the House of* AUSTRIA.

The emperor now perceiving the bad effects of his cruelty, published proclamations of indemnity, &c. but they were treated with the utmost contempt. The patriots made the most rapid conquests, insomuch, that before the end of the year they were masters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg.

Notwithstanding they thus appeared forever separated from the House of Austria, yet the death of Joseph, happening soon after, produced such a change in the conduct of government, as gave a very unexpected turn to the situation of affairs ; and the mild and pacifick disposition of Leopold, who succeeded his brother, the conciliating measures he adopted, together with the mediation of Great-Britain, Prussia and Holland, made a material alteration in the affairs of these provinces ; and a convention, which was signed at Reichenbach on the 27th of July 1790, by the above mentioned high contracting powers, had for its object the re-establishment of peace and good order in the Belgick provinces of his imperial majesty.

Their majesties of Great-Britain and Prussia, and the States General of Holland, became in the most solemn manner, guarantees to the emperor and his successors for the sovereignty of the Belgick Provinces, now re-united under his dominion.

The ratification of this convention was exchanged between the contracting parties within two months from the date of signing, which was executed at the Hague on the 10th of December, 1790.

The Netherlands have since become the scene of that desolating war which has been kindled in the world, and have been overrun by the numerous armies of France.

These Provinces now make a part of the French empire; are divided into departments, and annexed to the map of France by order of government.

PRUSSIA.

ORIGIN, NAME, BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.

THIS kingdom, which now ranks among the first powers of Europe, commenced with the eighteenth century. Her dominions were small and scattered, till Silesia and a third part of Poland were added to them. These have given strength and stability to the monarchy.

According to some the name of Prussia is derived from the *Pruzzi*, a Sclavonian tribe; according to others it is derived from the *Borussi*, the ancient inhabitants of the country; others again conceive it more probably derived from the name of *Russia*, and the Sclavonick word *Po*, which signifies near or adjacent. [*Pinkerton.*]

Exclusive of small detached territories, the kingdom of Prussia extends from the river Oder west, to the river Memel east, about 600 miles; the breadth, from the southern limit of Silesia to Dantzick, exceeds three hundred miles. On the east and south, Prussia is bounded on the dominions of Russia and Austria; west by the bishoprick of Hildesheins. [*Pinkerton.*]

The following Table, from Zimmermann, contains the best information of the divisions, extent, population, towns, &c. of Prussia, in 1787.

TABLE.

Divisions.	Square Miles.	Population Total.	Population for every Square Mile.	Chief Towns and Number of Inhabitants.	
A. Counties which are independent of the German Empire (570 Towns)	121,600	6,600,000* 5,883,769†		Berlin, (capital)	145,136
B. Counties which are dependent					
A. 1. Kingdom of Prussia, viz.	22,144	1,500,000	68	Towns 69, Villages	1,260
East-Prussia	12,048	940,000	78	Koningsberg	54,000
W. Prussia (44 Towns)	10,096	560,000	55	Elbing	16,000
2. Dutchies of Silesia & Glatz (161 Towns)	10,240	1,582,000	154	Breslau	51,000
3. Principalities of Neufchatel & Valengin	240	40,500	169	Neufchatel	6,000
B. 1. The March of Brandenburg, viz.	10,624	1,057,000	99		

* Herzburg. † Baron Korff.

a. The Electoral March	7,104	795,000	112	Potsdam	20,000
				Brandenburg	9,200
				Frankft. on the Oder	10,000
b. The New March	3,520	262,000	74	Custrin	4,400
2. Dutchy of Pomerania (39 Towns)	8,112	465,000	132	Stettin	15,485
3. Dutchy of Magdeburg	1,664	280,000	168	Magdeburg and	26,300 10,0000G.
				Halle and	15,202 5,000G.
4. Principality of Halberstadt	672	132,000	196	Halberstadt	11,200M.
5. The possessions in Westphalia, viz.	3,904	490,000	151		
1. Duchy of Minden & County of Ravensberg (6 Towns)	816	130,000	159	Minden	5,178
2. Counties of Fecklinburg and Lingen (4 Towns)	208	45,000	216	Fecklinburg	
				Lingen	1,800
3. Principality of Ostfriesland or Frisia (4 Towns)	864	130,000	119	Emden	7,900M.
4. Dutchy of Cleve (24 Towns)	640	95,000	149	Cleve	5,300
5. County of Mark	896	125,000	140	Soerst	5,020
6. Principality of Moeurs	96	17,000	177	Moeurs and Creseld	5,800
7. Dutchy of Gueldern	384	50,000	130	Gueldern	

As the countries belonging to this Monarchy are scattered, and without any natural connexion, one cannot ascertain very accurately their boundaries.—The latitude of Prussia goes to 55° lat. north.

Before the recent acquisitions of Poland, the number of Prussian subjects was computed at 5,621,500, in an extent of 56,414 square miles, about 99 to a square mile. At present they amount probably to more than 8,000,000. [*Pinkerton.*]

The following estimate of Prussian population is compiled from the subdivisions of Hoeck, 1801, including all the present divisions of this monarchy.

Eastern Prussia	940,000
Western Prussia	521,625
Southern Prussia	1,100,000
New Eastern Prussia	700,000
A part of Poland incorporated with Silesia	74,000
Pomerania	472,957
Brandenburg	755,577
New March	279,584
Madgeburg	272,262
Halberstadt	111,875
Minden	67,952

Ravensburg	81,812
East-Friesland	102,594
Cleves	100,000
Mars	17,000
Mark	121,984
Gelder	48,000
Tecklenburg	17,234
Lingen	23,432
Silesia	1,747,065
Anspach	215,256
Baireuth	205,440
Neufchatel and Valengin	42,500
Total,	8,021,149

[*Pinkerton.*]

Capital.] Koningsberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, seated on the river Pregel, over which it has seven bridges, is about eighty-four miles from Dantzick. According to Dr. Busching, this city is seven miles in circumference, contains 3,800 houses, and about 60,000 inhabitants. According to Korff, 55,086. Koningsberg has a considerable share of commerce and shipping, as the Pregel is navigable for ships, of which four hundred and ninety-three foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, besides two hundred and ninety-eight coasters. Three hundred and seventy-three floats of timber were, in the compass of that year, brought down that river. This city, besides its college or university, which contains 38 professors, has magnificent palaces, a town-house, and exchange. It has a good harbour and a citadel, which is called Fredericksburg, and is a regular square.

Religion.] The prevailing religion in Prussia has been the Protestant, Lutheran and Calvinistick; but since the acquisitions in Poland the greater number of the inhabitants must be Roman Catholicks. The universal toleration established has softened the asperity of theological debates, and the different sects live in harmony. [*Pinkerton.*]

Wealth, Commerce, &c.] The different provinces of the Prussian monarchy are by no means equal to one another with respect to fertility and the articles of their produce. The kingdom of Prussia being the most northern part of the monarchy, is rich in corn, timber, mannagrass, flax, and peltry of all sorts, and exports these articles. Amber is exported annually to the value of 20,000 dollars. Prussia wants salt, and has no metals but iron. The profits of its fisheries are considerable. Silesia has silver, lead, tin and iron; but its mines are still in an infant state: It has likewise a great plenty of pit-coal different sorts of salt, precious stones, and quarries of excellent free stone. The sheep and goats of this province are remarkably good. Of vegetables, it produces large quantities of madder, some tobacco, wine and corn, sufficient for the consumption of this province. The March of Brandenburg has excellent sheep, timber, flax, silk, saltpetre, alum, and a very fine sort of clay, used in the China manufacture. Pomerania exports timber, cattle and corn. Halberstadt and Magdeburg are remarkable for corn and silk, and Westphalia for corn and minerals. The provinces of Westphalia have iron, calamine, pit-

coal, and some lead and copper. The industry of the Prussian nation, encouraged chiefly by the late king, the wonder of the age, is at present so great, that not only 1,200 vessels and 12,000 seamen are employed, in the maritime provinces, where trade was formerly at a very low ebb, no more than 500 fishermen being employed in the herring fishery: but the produce of the mines is made to amount to 1,300,000 dollars, and gives bread to 90,000 families. The sum accruing to the king from the mines amounts to 800,000 dollars, and the profits of private proprietors to 500,000 dollars. Before the commencement of the late reign, Prussia (according to Count Herzberg) had but a few silk manufactures: At present they employ upwards of 6000 hands; and the value of goods manufactured amounts to 2,000,000 dollars annually, one fourth of which is exported. Of 70,000lb. of raw silk, required for this manufacture, 13,532lb. are produced in the Prussian dominions. Large water-mills are erected for spinning silk, wool and thread. The articles supplied by these mills are of very great commercial consequence. Prussia exports linen, to the value of six millions of dollars, chiefly to Spain and Italy, and woollens to the value of four millions, some of which finds it way even to China, through Russia. Eastern Prussia exports, annually, 100,000 stein of flax, 10,000 stein of hemp, besides some thousand tons of flax and hemp seed. West Prussia exports linen thread to the value of 500,000 dollars, and 49,000 stein of flax. The iron works and founderies of the county of Mark bring into circulation about one million of dollars. These articles, added to the timber and corn of Brandenburg and Pomerania, each of which articles is exported to the value of one million of dollars; to the flax and timber of Prussia, and to the important Polish trade carried on by the way of Koningsberg, Memel, Elbing, Dantzick and Stettin, turn the balance of trade considerably in favour of the Prussian dominions. There are in all about 155,700 hands employed in the manufactures of cloth, silk, linen, leather, &c.* The manufacture of porcelain employs 700 people. The cotton manufacture, with respect to the fineness and beauty of its goods, is one of the best in Europe. Besides the above, there are many manufactures of glass, white lead, hard ware, vitriol, alum, paper, sugar, tobacco, &c. The number of people working in the principal manufactures of Prussia is upwards of 165,000, and the produce of their industry is estimated at upwards of 30,000,000 dollars. The small manufactures of starch, alum, vinegar, bleached wax, tobacco pipes, arms, tapestry, gloves, are not included in this calculation, yet they produce many millions of dollars. At Embden an East-India Company has been established with considerable success.

Army.] In 1783, the army of Prussia amounted to 224,431 men, viz.

	Infantry.	Cavalry.
In the March	46,488	4,187
In Prussia	33,947	12,229
In Pomerania	12,670	8,430
In Magdeburg	16,907	3,790
In Westphalia	13,990	
In Silesia	40,168	13,860

* Baron Korff.

In 1785 the army amounted to 192,377. In 1790 to 209,259.

At Berlin there is an Ecole Militaire, and a school for cadets; each regiment has its court of justice. The Prussian troops are said to be the best disciplined of any in Europe.

Navy.] The acquisition of Dantzick, and some other ports on the Baltick, may in time place Prussia among the maritime powers. At present her attention is paid almost solely to the land service.

[*Pinkerton.*]

Finances.] The finances of Prussia amount to 23 millions of dollars: According to Busching to 18,500,000 only.

From the Electorate or March of Brandenburg	6½ millions
From Prussia	4½
From Pomerania	2
From Magdeburg and Halberstadt	2
From Westphalia	2
From Silesia	6 — 23
According to Busching.	
Pomerania	2,000,000
Prussia	4,000,000
Silesia	4,500,000
March of Brandenburg	3,300,000
Magdeburg	1,400,000
Halberstadt	500,000
Cleve, Mark, and Moeurs	1,000,000
Minden and Ravensberg	900,000
Ostfriesland	900,000
	18,500,000

The revenues arise from demesnes of the king, his duties of customs and tolls, and the subsidies yearly granted by the several states. Amber alone is said to bring him in 26,000 dollars annually.

Government.] His Prussian Majesty is absolute through all his dominions: the government of this kingdom is exercised by a regency of four Chancellors of state, viz. 1. The Great Master: 2. The Great Burgrave: 3. The Great Chancellor; And 4. The Great Marshal. There are also some other councils, and 17 Bailiwicks. The states consist: 1. Of Counsellors of State; 2. Of Deputies from the Nobility: And 3. From the Commons. Besides these institutions, his Majesty has erected a board for commerce and navigation.

Robbery is not punished with death. The king reserves to himself the right of pardoning, and he exercises it in annulling every sentence of death which is not conformable in his opinion to the laws of God and of nature; for this purpose he has established, "that no execution can take place in his dominions, till after he has himself taken cognizance of the sentence which ordains it."

The department of foreign affairs has the direction of all the intercourse between the state and foreign governments. It is under the direction of three chief ministers of state.

The department of the finances takes cognizance of the revenue and also of all the interior affairs of the country. It has the inspection in all the Prussian Monarchy, except Silesia, of all affairs which relate to the finances, demesnes *(domaines)* duties, imports and police. It is divided into five smaller departments. The third department is that of justice. It administers justice as well civil as criminal through the whole Prussian Monarchy. It is composed of a grand Chancellor, four Ministers of State, four counsellors. All the colleges of justice are responsible to it. [*Baron Korff.*]

General Remarks.] The flourishing state of Prussia previous to the late convulsions in Europe, (in which she has acted a conspicuous and dishonourable part) a country by no means remarkable for its natural riches, is an astonishing proof of what a single great man is able to effect, who unites extraordinary strength of genius, with laborious and persevering activity. This monarchy resembles a very complicated machine, which, by its ingenious and admirable construction, produces the greatest effects with the greatest ease, but in which the yielding of a wheel, or the relaxation of a spring, will put a stop to the motion of the whole. The united effects of flourishing finances, of prudent enconomy, of accuracy and dispatch in every branch of administration, and of a formidable military strength, have given to this state such a consequence, that the tranquillity and security, not only of Germany, but of all Europe, have been thought to depend in a great measure on the politicks of the Prussian cabinet. The administration of justice is likewise admirably simplified, and executed with unparalleled quickness. Upon the whole, the reign of Frederick the Great may, indeed, be considered as the most specious argument, in favour of monarchical government.* Improvements were made in one single reign, which in a country where the governing powers were less united and more limited, would have required several ages, and the most favourable circumstances. Difference of religion in a state, is commonly the cause of many disturbances ; under the late king, all professions of faith lived peaceably together, because the established religion, which is the reformed, had no power to oppress those of a different persuasion. Roman Catholicks and Jews are very numerous in the Prussian dominions : they enjoy the most perfect freedom in the exercise of their religion.

The progress which the arts and sciences, and especially elegant literature, made during the reign of this great man, was very considerable. It is no more than about 50 years ago, that the Germans, though great proficients in every branch of scientifick knowledge, paid proper attention to the refinement of their taste, and the cultivation of their language. Yet such is the application peculiar to the Germans, and so well were they prepared for every species of composition by their intimate acquaintance with the best ancient and modern writers of all nations, that having once laid aside the fashion of writing in Latin, they were able to enumerate, in a short period, many

* The reign of his successor, the present monarch, is sufficient, one would imagine, to do away the force of this "specious argument." Witness his conduct towards Holland and Poland, and his perfidy towards his allies in the iniquitous combination against France.

excellent poets and elegant writers in their native language. This is the more to be wondered at, as the late king of Prussia, greatly neglected in his education, and afterwards constantly surrounded by foreigners, was unacquainted with, and indifferent to the energy and copiousness of his own language, and to the progress his countrymen made in taste and composition. He had, however, the merit of encouraging the sciences and some branches of literature; and such is the connection between the different branches, that if some of them are patronized by great and powerful men, all the other branches will partake of the animatting influence. [*Zimmermann.*]

This great man was himself an author. Of his works, there is no portion more instructive than that part of his memoirs after the war of seven years, wherein he relates the measures which he employed to restore the prosperity of his dominions. He thus describes their situation at the end of that contest. The picture is drawn by the hand of a master, and must excite the attention of every reader.

"It is necessary," says Frederick, "that we should imagine countries entirely ravaged, where the traces of former habitations were scarcely discoverable; towns almost erased from the earth; others half consumed by the flames; thirteen thousand houses of which no vestige remained; fields lying fallow; the inhabitants destitute of the corn necessary for their support; the farmers in want of sixty thousand horses for the plough; and a diminution of five hundred thousand inhabitants, since the year 1756; a very considerable number in a population of only four millions and five hundred thousand.

"The noble and the peasant had been pillaged, ransomed and foraged, by so many different armies, that nothing was left them except life, and the miserable rags by which their nakedness was concealed. They had not sufficient credit even to satisfy the daily wants of nature. There was no longer any police in the towns. To a spirit of equity and regularity, base self-interest, disorder and anarchy had succeeded. The colleges of justice and of finance had been rendered inactive, by the frequent invasions of such numerous enemies. The slumber of the laws produced a licentiousness of spirit in the publick, and hence, avarice and rapacity took birth. The noble, the merchant, the farmer, the labourer, the manufacturer, all strove who should set the highest price on their commodities, their provisions and their industry; and only seemed active to effect their mutual ruin. Such was the fatal spectacle which so many provinces, that had lately been so flourishing, presented at the conclusion of the war. There is no description, however pathetick, can possibly approach the deep, the afflicting, the mournful impression which the sight of them produced." The king proceeds to inform us by what methods he restored his territories to their former situation. In the course of this dreadful war, he had neither added a single new impost nor contracted any foreign debt; and yet he was enabled, at the end of it, to remit a great proportion of the taxes paid by his subjects. What is still more incomprehensible, his treasury supplied resources for the rebuilding of the towns and villages. His magazines furnished his people with corn to sow their lands, and likewise for their immediate subsistence. Thirty-five thousand horses, which had been destined for the use of the artillery

and waggons of the army, were employed in agriculture. Two millions three hundred and thirty-nine thousand crowns were given to the provinces, with which they discharged the debts that they had contracted during the war, in order to pay their contributions, and to satisfy those impositions which the vagrant enemy had exacted. Multiplied largesses restored courage to the Prussians, who had begun to despair amidst their sufferings. The king dug canals; he drained marshes; in short, he neglected no measure which could, perhaps, have been devised by the duke of Sully himself, to secure the happiness of his people. Agriculture, manufactures and commerce, began in a few years to flourish. To enter, at present, into a farther detail, would trespass upon the limits of this work. "That the result," says he, "may be known, the best method will be to compare the population of the year 1749, with that of the year 1779; of which the following is an abstract.

Provinces.	Date.	No. Inhabi.	Date.	No. Inhabi.
Prussia	1740	370,000	1779	780,000
Brandenburg	do.	480,000	do.	710,000
Magdeburg & Halberstadt	do.	220,000	do.	280,000
Silesia	do.	1,100,000	do.	1,520,000
		2,170,000		3,290,000

Increase, one million one hundred and twenty thousand." The reader will observe, by comparing this statement with the preceding table. that the king does not comprehend in these calculations, his part of Westphalia, and some other scattered territories. The augmentation in the number of his subjects, within the space of thirty-nine years, is, however, very great. But it must add infinitely to our surprise, if we reflect, that, during the same period, Frederick had been engaged in four bloody wars, in the course of which his armies had fought above twenty pitched battles, and that in one of these wars only, he lost, by his own account, one hundred and eighty thousand soldiers, besides vast numbers of the peasantry. We have already quoted his remark, that in the year 1756, the total population of his territories amounted to four millions five hundred thousand, and at the end of the war, they had been reduced to four millions. At his accession to the crown, in 1740, the dominions which he inherited from his father contained, altogether, only two millions two hundred and and forty thousand people.* Within a few years after the war of 1756, the population of his territories rose to its former height, and at his death in 1786, they contained, including his acquisition of Polish

* Frederick himself states them at three millions; but his English translator adds in a note, that they extended only to the number specified in the text. We may observe, once for all, that the king sometimes contradicts himself in details of this sort. For such inaccuracies, his extreme candour forms an ample apology. His attention was engrossed by duties more important, or at least more interesting, than those of an historian.

Prussia, more than six millions of people. The number of births and deaths is carefully registered in the Prussian dominions; and, upon one of the late annual examinations, it was found, that within the preceding year, the former outnumbered the latter by more than fifty thousand.

Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 colonists have removed thither from France, Switzerland and Germany; of which number 17,000 were Saltzburghers. These emigrants have built 400 small villages, 11 towns, and 50 new churches. They have founded 1000 village schools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania. [*Carey's Edition of Guthrie.*]

History.] Prussia was anciently inhabited by an idolatrous and cruel people. The barbarity and ravages they were continually making upon their neighbours, obliged Conrad, duke of Masovia, about the middle of the thirteenth century, to call to his assistance the knights of the Teutonick order, who were just returned from the holy land. These knights chose a grand master, attacked those people with success, and after a bloody war of fifty years, reduced them to obedience, and obliged them to embrace christianity. They maintained their conquest till 1525, when Albert, Margrave of Blandenburg, their last grand master, having made himself master of all Prussia, ceded the western part to the king of Poland, and was acknowledged duke of the eastern part, but to be held as a fief of that kingdom. The Elector Frederick William, surnamed the Great, by a treaty with Poland in 1656, obtained a confirmation of this part of Prussia to him and his heirs, free from vassalage, and in 1663, he was declared independent and sovereign duke. With these titles, and as grand master of the Teutonicks, they continued till 1701, when Frederick, son of Frederick William the Great, and grandfather of the late king, raised the dutchy of Prussia to a kingdom, and on January 18, 1701, in a solemn assembly of the states of the empire, placed the crown with his own hands upon his head; soon after which, he was acknowledged as king of Prussia by all the other European powers. Frederick III. died August 17, 1786, and was succeeded by his nephew, Frederick William, who was born 1744.

POLAND.

POLAND was formerly a kingdom, 700 miles in length, 680 in breadth, lying between 16° and 34° east longitude, and 46° 30′ and 57° 35′ north latitude; bounded N. by Livonia, Muscovy and the Baltick Sea, E. by Muscovy, S. by Hungary, Turkey and Little Tartary, and W. by Pomerania, Brandenburg, Silesia and Moravia.

The country, particularly about Lithuania, abounds with mines of silver, copper, iron, salt and coal.

The persons of the Poles are in general noble, well proportioned, and their complexion fair. In no country do the people show more

bodily vigour or health. This is owing not only to the healthiness of the climate, but to their temperate living and manly exercises. Popery was the established religion. The salt mines are prodigious curiosities; that near Wielitska has been wrought above 600 years. In the mine is a spacious plain, which contains a little republick. Here is a road, teams, huts and villages, which have little connection with the inhabitants on the surface of the globe. Hundreds and hundreds of people are born, live and die here. The breadth of this mine is 1,115 feet, the length, 6,691, and depth 743. Warsaw, Cracow and Dantzick are the principal cities. But this kingdom is blotted from the catalogue of nations. In 1772, Russia, Prussia and Austria divided a great part of the kingdom. Polish or Western Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, were added to Prussia: Almost all the south-east part of the kingdom, bordering upon Hungary, with the rich salt works of the crown, were seized for the empress queen of Hungary and Bohemia. Russia took possession of a large country about Mohilow upon the banks of the Dnieper. Austria claimed a great extent of territory, reaching from the Vistula to the Dnieper, now denominated the kingdoms of Gallicia and Lodomiria. In 1771, the king of Prussia, in a most cruel manner, had carried from Poland more than 12,000 families to people his own kingdom. He levied a species of contribution unheard of in the annals of tyranny. Every town and village was obliged to furnish a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents giving to them a considerable portion. Some were bound hand and foot and carried off as criminals. The dismemberment of Poland reduced the population to 9,000,000: It had been 14,000,000.

But ambition was not satisfied. In 1793 an army of Russians assembled, took and plundered Warsaw, the capital of Poland; 5,000 of her troops fell in defence of the place; nine thousand citizens, men, women and children, were massacred. Soon after the king of Poland, being their prisoner, resigned his crown and kingdom into the hands of his bloody conquerors.

GERMANY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 600 Breadth 500	between	5° and 19° E. long. 45° 4′ and 54° 40′ N. lat.	191,571

Boundaries.] THE empire of Germany, properly so called, is bounded by the German Ocean, Denmark and the Baltick, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the East; by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy, on the South; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the West, from which it is separated by the Rhine, Moselle and the Maese.

Grand Divisions.] The divisions of Germany, in 1787, according to Zimmermann, are as follows:

Divisions.	Areas in Square Miles.	Population.	Population for every Square Mile.
1. Upper Saxony	32,000	3,700,000	115
2. Lower Saxony	20,480	2,100,000	102
3. Westphalia	20,000	2,300,000	115
4. Upper Rhine	8,000	1,000,000	225
5. Lower Rhine	7,328	1,100,000	163
6. Burgundy	7,504	1,880,000	255
7. Franconia	7,744	1,000,000	125
8. Swabia	11,664	1,800,000	154
9. Bavaria	16,320	1,600,000	98
10. Austria	34,320	4,182,000	121
11. Bohemia	15,376	2,266,000	148
12. Moravia	6,336	1,137,000	179
13. Silesia	11,520	1,800,000	157
14. Lusatia	2,880	400,000	136
	Total,	26,265,000	

"Germany contains 28,000,000 inhabitants; (Mr. Pinkerton supposes little more than 25,000,000); 300 free and sovereign states; upwards of 2,300 cities; 3000 towns, and 82,000 villages, exclusive of castles, and manors of the nobility." [*Emert, Stat. Tab.* 1792.]

The empire, according to Emert, is divided into 10 circles, or great districts, which comprehend many states, whose princes, prelates, counts, and deputies, sometimes assemble on their common affairs.

Of these circles, six are ancient, viz. Franconia, Bavaria, Suabia, Upper Rhine, Westphalia, Lower Saxony; and four new, viz. Austria, Burgundy, Lower Rhine, or the Electoral circle, and Upper Saxony. The object of their establishment was to maintain peace and interior tranquillity; to prevent every act of violence; to forward deliberations and arrangements for the common good of the empire; to facilitate the granting contributions in money and troops; the execution of the judgments given in the superior tribunals against the states; the nomination of assessors of the imperial chamber; the prevention or abolition of disorders in gathering the toll, or in coining, &c. These circles have no determined rank; the acts of the empire cite them in various orders. Each circle has the power of receiving new members; some have increased, others have diminished. Those who have a voice in the assembly of a circle are called *States of the circle.*

The German empire has many fiefs in Italy, as the dutchies of Milan, Mantua, Montserrat, Parma, Modena, Tuscany, Piedmont, &c. &c. These states are not states of the German empire, they are only annexed to it by the feudal league. They are, however, obliged to furnish contributions in times of war, which they seldom do, unless forced. Their members are obliged to appear before the Aulick council of the empire in matters which regard their persons or lands. [*Emert.*]

Name.] The Germans call their country *Deutschland*, that is, the country of *Teutones*, a people who rendered themselves famous 100 years before Christ. [*Emert.*]

Mountains.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and those which separate Saxony, Bavaria and Moravia from Bohemia. But many other large tracts of mountains are found in different parts of the empire.

Forests.] The vast passion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar, is the reason why perhaps there are more woods and chases yet standing in Germany than in most other countries. Or what is more probable, they are led to hunting from the forests around them inhabited by plenty of game. The Hercynian forest, which in Cesar's time was nine days journey in length, and six in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Most of the woods are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vast number of forests of less note in every part of this country; almost every count, baron or gentleman having a chase or park adorned with pleasure-houses, and well stocked with game, viz. deer of which there are seven or eight sorts, as roebucks, stags, &c. of all sizes and colours, and many of a vast growth: plenty of hares, conies, foxes, and boars. They abound so much also with wild fowl, that in many places the peasants have them, as well as venison, for their ordinary food.

Rivers and Lakes.] No country can boast a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head stands the Danube or Donaw, so called from the swiftness of the current, and which some pretend to be naturally the finest river in the world. It rises in Swabia, and from Vienna to Belgrade in Hungary, it is so broad, that in the wars between the Turks and Christians, ships of war have been engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it passes is inconceivable. The Danube, however, contains a vast number of cataracts and whirlpools; its stream is rapid, and its course, without reckoning turnings and windings, is computed to be 1620 miles.

The Drave and Iiess are noble branches of the Danube. The Inn, another branch, rises in the east of Swisserland and has a course of 250 miles.

The Elbe, rises in the Sudetick mountains of Silesia, and enters the sea near Cuxhaven, after a course of more than 500 miles. It is navigable for ships in high tides to Hamburg, though they generally anchor a mile below the city. Not far to the west is the mouth of the Weser. The inundations of this stream are terrible; the towns and villages on its banks become islands.

The Rhine is a noble river, having a course of about six hundred miles; the Necker and Mayne are its generous tributary streams.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are those of Constance and Bregentz. Besides these are the Chiemsee, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zirtchnitzer sea in the dutchy of Carniola, whose waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Besides these lakes and rivers, in some of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of standing water, which are next to pestilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable disorders.

Productions, mineral, vegetable and animal; Commerce, &c. From the advantageous situation and the great extent of Germany, from the various appearances of the soil, the number of its mountains, forests, and large rivers, we must naturally expect, and we actually find, an extraordinary variety and vast plenty of useful productions. The northern, and chiefly the north-east parts, furnish many sorts of peltry, as skins of foxes, bears, wolves, squirrels, lynxes, wild cats, boars, &c.; the southern parts produce excellent wines and fruits; the middle provinces great plenty of corn, cattle, and minerals. Mines have been explored in Germany from the earliest times, and the riches derived from them were in a great measure the cause and the support of the former celebrated trade of the Venetians. The Hartz mountains in Lower Saxony contain gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, zinc, cobalt, vitriol, sulphur, and other minerals: gold, however, is found only in the lower Hartz, to the amount of some hundred ducats; silver is coined annually in the upper Hartz, to the amount of 600,000, or according to other statements, 655,000 dollars: And the value of all the minerals of the Hartz amounts to near double that sum. The mountains of Upper Saxony are still richer; they have yielded no less than 34,000lb. of silver annually; the famous Saxon cobalt, chiefly used in making the blue colour called smalte, is reckoned to be nearly equal in value to the above quantity of silver. The quantity of iron and lead Germany supplies is extraordinary: The iron-works and founderies of Smalkalden, Iserlohe, Herzberg, Solingen, &c. are very little inferior to the iron-works in England. Hesse Cassel, as well as Hesse Darmstadt, the principalities of Nassau, and some neighbouring provinces, abound in copper, iron and lead. The palatinate is remarkable for its minerals, chiefly for its quick-silver, of which Deuxpont alone produces 50,000lb. a year. The value of the minerals of the provinces belonging to the House of Austria, and those of the Prussian provinces, is remarkably great. Salt is found in Germany in such abundance and so great purity, as is found in few other countries. The salt-works of Salzbourg, in the circle of Bavaria, are immense; the Durnberg yields annually 750,000lb. Not to mention those of Swabia, of Allendorf, Naunheim, Hall, in Upper Saxony, Creuznach, Schoenebeck, which are perhaps the greatest salt-works that either now or ever were; but we must not omit to take notice, that the best or purest salt we know of is that of Lunenburg, in the Hanoverian dominions. The articles of less use, as for instance, topazes, garnets, emeralds, crystals, do not deserve any particular mention; but the fine clay of Upper and Lower Saxony, of Hesse, and the Palatinate, forms a very considerable object of commerce, as it is used in making the porcelain of Dresden, Berlin, Furstenberg, Frankenthal, &c. superior to all other sorts of porcelain, except that of Japan and China. Pit-coal is found in Silesia, in the circles of Burgundy, and of Westphalia, and in Hesse. The small bishoprick of Liege exports annually to the value of near 100,000 ducats. In oth-

er parts plenty of fuel is supplied by the forests. The mineral waters of Germany are in high repute, and prove considerable articles of trade. The electorate of Treves gains 80,000 florins annually by that of Seltze; The prince of Waldeck 40,000 dollars by that of Pyrmont. The Spa waters produce a revenue of 60,000 dollars; And those of Aix la Chapelle, Wisbaden, the Schlangenbath, Embs, Rehberg, &c. sums proportioned to their reputation and their salutary effects. There are in Germany exceedingly fine materials for building; the mountains near the Rhine furnish the best basaltes, and other strong and useful sorts of lava, the greatest part of which is sold to the Dutch: The mountains of Saxony and Franconia contain excellent granite, porphyry, and marble quarries.

Notwithstanding the northerly situation of Germany, vines prosper in the greatest part of it, viz. in both the circles of the Rhine, Swabia, Franconia, Upper Saxony, Westphalia, Bohemia and Austria. Among the German wines, those of the Rhine and Swabia claim the first rank; the best sorts are that of Hochheim, commonly called *old hock*; that of Johannesberg, Rudesheim and Bacharach, &c. Excellent fruits are found in great abundance in the southern provinces; thus, for instance, Lankheim, a small village in the circle of the Rhine, sells sometimes in one year, dried plums to the amount of 50,000 florins. The apples of Leipzick, are a considerable article of exportation. Tobacco is cultivated in large quantities: The Palatinate exports to the amount of 800,000 florins annually; Baireuth 50,000 cwt. of the same article. The richest corn countries are both Saxonies, Holstein, Mecklenburg, Bavaria and Pomerania: Flax and hemp are produced chiefly in Lower Saxony, Westphalia and Silesia. The great value of this branch of trade is too well known to need any particular mention. The greatest trading towns of Germany are at present the imperial cities, Hamburg, Lubeck, Bremen, Frankfort on the Main; none of them seaport towns, yet they are situated on large rivers, and the three first not far from the sea. Formerly these three cities commanded, in a great measure, the trade of all Europe, while they were at the head of the famous Hanseatick league; and though their present power and opulence is no longer equal to their influence in former ages, they still may be considered as the greatest factories or emporiums of Germany. A considerable inland trade is carried on at the fairs of Leipzick, Brunswick, Frankfort on the Oder, and Frankfort on the Main. As to the national industry, we observe, that there are scarce any articles of trade, convenience, and luxury not manufactured in Germany. If the Germans are inferior to the English in the manufactures of cloth, hard-ware, and in the articles of luxury, the causes must perhaps entirely be looked for in the political situation of this country: The great number of princes; the variety of the forms of government; the different interests and mutual jealousy of the petit states, are great checks on the commerce and prosperity of the whole. The great number of courts require large sums of money, which might be appropriated to useful purposes, and the encouragement of industry; they keep up a predilection for a court and military life among the nobility and gentry, and a contempt for the employment of a tradesman and a manufacturer. The jealousy

of surrounding neighbours can greatly confine the market of a small country, whose industry is greater than theirs ; and the difficulty of obtaining their concurrence in measures of general utility, is frequenly the cause why there are so few canals and good roads, to facilitate travelling and inland trade. [*Zimmermann.*] The number of hot baths and mineral springs in Germany is very considerable, of which the greater part are situated in Austria. [*Emert.*]

Cities, Towns, Forts, and other Edifices, publick and private ; with occasional estimates of Revenue and Population.

This is a copious head in all countries, but more particularly so in Germany, on account of the numerous independent states it contains. The reader therefore must be contented with the mention of the most capital places, and their peculiarities.

Berlin, the capital of the Prussian dominions, lies on the river Spree, and, besides a royal palace, has many other superb palaces ; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calvinist churches, besides a Roman Catholick one. Its streets and squares are spacious, and built in a very regular manner. But the houses, though neat without, are ill furnished and ill finished within, very indifferently provided with inhabitants. The king's palace here, and that of prince Henry, are very magnificent buildings. The opera-house is also a beautiful structure : And the arsenal, which is handsomely built in the form of a square, contains arms for 200,000 men. There are sundry manufactures in Berlin, and several schools, libraries, and charitable foundations. Pinkerton states the population at 140,000. In 1755 Busching says, there were no fewer than 443 silk looms, 149 of half-silks, 2858 for woollen stuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace work, 39 frames for silk stockings, and 310 for worsted ones. They have here manufactures of tapestry, gold and silver lace, and mirrors. The electorate of Saxony is, by nature, the richest country in Germany, if not in Europe : It contains 210 walled towns, 61 market towns, and about three thousand villages, according to the latest accounts of the Germans themselves ; and the revenue, estimating each rix-dollar at four shillings and six pence, amounts to 1,350,000l. This sum is so moderate, when compared to the richness of the soil, which, according to Busching, produces even diamonds, and almost all the precious stones to be found in the East-Indies and elsewhere, and the variety of splendid manufactories, that the Saxon princes must have been the most moderate and patriotick of any in Germany.

We can say little more of *Dresden*, the elector of Saxony's capital, than can be said of all fine cities, that its fortifications, palaces, publick buildings, churches, and charitable foundations, and, above all its suburbs, are magnificent beyond all expression ; that it is beautifully situated on both sides of the Elbe ; and that it is the school of Germany for statuary, painting, enamelling and carving ; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dresden, by the latest accounts, amount to 110,000. Pinkerton says only 50,000.

The city of *Leipsick* in Upper Saxony, 46 miles distant from Dresden, is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Pleisse, and the inhabitants are said to amount to about 40,000: not 30,000, Pinkerton says. There are also large and well-built suburbs, with handsome gardens. Between these suburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompasses the city. Mulberry-trees are also planted in the town ditches: But the fortifications seem rather calculated for the use of the inhabitants to walk on, than for defence. The streets are clean, commodious and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with seven hundred lamps. They reckon 436 merchants' houses, and 192 manufactories of different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c. Leipsick has long been distinguished for the liberty of conscience allowed here to persons of different sentiments in religious matters. Here is a university, which is still very considerable, with six churches for the Lutherans, theirs being the established religion, one for the Calvinists, and a chapel in the castle for those of the Romish church. The university library consists of about 26,000 volumes, 6,000 of which are folios. Here is also a library for the magistrates, which consists of about 36,000 volumes, and nearly 2,000 manuscripts, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques and medals, with many curiosities of art and nature. The Exchange is an elegant building.

The city of *Hanover*, the capital of that electorate, stands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving and agreeable city. It contains about 15,500 inhabitants; here is an electoral palace. It carries on some manufactures; and in its neighbourhood lie the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhausen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about seven hundred and fifty thousand people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and sixty market towns, beside villages. The city and suburbs of Bremen, belonging by purchase to the said elector, contain about fifty thousand inhabitants, and have a considerable trade by the Weser. The other towns belonging this electorate have trade and manufactures; but in general it must be remarked, that the electorate has suffered greatly by the accession of the Hanover family to the crown of Great-Britain. Osnaburg, the chief city of the bishoprick of Osnaburg, lying between the rivers Weser and Embs, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the Dutchy, and for the manufacture of the best Westphalia hams. The whole revenue of the bishoprick amounts to about 30,000l.

Breslau, the capital of Silesia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all sects of Christians and Jews are tolerated; but the magistracy is Lutheran. Since Silesia fell under the Prussian dominions, its trade is greatly improved, being very inconsiderable before. The manufactures of Silesia, which principally centre at Breslau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is by some said to produce for his Prussian majesty, near a million sterling: But this sum seems to be exaggerated; if, as other authors of good note write, it never brought in to the house of Austria above 500,000l. yearly.

Frankfort is situated in a healthful, fertile and delightful country along the Maine, by which it is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of Frankfort and Saxenhausen. The former of these, being the largest, is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two; and both are computed to contain about three thousand houses. Frankfort is the usual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and is also a free and imperial city. It is of a circular form, without any suburbs; but the streets are generally narrow, and the houses are mostly built of timber and plaster, and covered with slate; though there are some handsome private structures, of a kind of red marble, that deserve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the Compestle and Fronhof, the Triershof, the Cullenhof, the German-house, an august edifice, situated near the bridge over the Maine, the Hesse Darmstadthof, the palace of the prince de la Tours, and the houses of the counts of Solms, Schauenburg, and Schonborn; and there are three principal squares.

Ratisbon, the chief city in the circle, is the only imperial town in the elector of Bavaria's dominions. Some suppose it was built by Tiberius, 14 years before the birth of Christ. It was certainly possessed by the Romans till A. D. 508.

The city is large and populous, in a pleasant situation, and well fortified. It has a great trade by the Danube and the Nabe. Here is a stone bridge over the Danube of 15 arches, 23 feet broad and 1091 long. La Forest says, The people have the privilege of throwing their disobedient children into the river. In the Benedictine monastery here, are three valuable curiosities. The first is a Latin copy of the four Evangelists, in letters of gold, in the old Lombard characters, written in A. D. 870. It is adorned with bosses of pearl, clasps of gold, and the picture of the emperor Charles the bald. The second is a manuscript of the gospels, written in 754. The third is a register of the exploits of Attila the Hunn. [*Bowen.*]

Munich is one of the most pleasant and populous cities in Germany, having 38,000 inhabitants. It was encompassed with walls A. D. 1157. It is the metropolis of the elector of Bavaria, and now his seat. It stands on the Soer, which visits many of its streets by its canals. Many mills are within its walls; and the rich have fountains and water-works.

The elector's palace is fit to receive the greatest monarch, with his attendants and guards.

This city will ever be memorable for the improvements of Mr. Thomson, now Count Rumford, which tend to benefit mankind; to alleviate or remove the distresses of the poor in particular.

It will also be remembered from its having once been the residence of Weishaupt, the founder of the Illuminees, "a society which of all others has produced the greatest miseries to the civilized world; a society which for depravity of design and address in execution far exceeds any scheme formed by man."

Inhabitants, Language and Character.] Germany is inhabited partly by the Germans, partly by the Sclavonians or *Venedes*. The Germans occupy the western and northern parts of the Elbe; the Sclavonians the countries which are between the Est and the Elbe, as

Bohemia, Moravia, some parts of the dutchy of Austria, Lusatia, &c. Besides these two nations, there are, in some districts, many French refugees, and in almost all parts there are Jews. The language is divided into high and low German; the former yields to no language for elegance, energy and harmony. The Sclavonian tongue is the second principal language of Germany, which they speak in Bohemia, Moravia and Alsace. In some districts French and Italian are spoken.

The inhabitants of Germany are politically divided into *four* classes. The *first* comprehends the high nobility, composed of princes, counts, and independent lords. The *second* is composed of low or feudatory nobility. The *third* consists of burghers, and the *fourth* of peasants. The difference between the two last classes is, that the first commonly join to the *ingenuousness* of their birth the enjoyment of many privileges, whilst the peasant, although personally free in most parts of Germany, is nevertheless restrained by limited *corvees* and some pecuniary contributions. In the country of the Venedes, and even in many provinces originally German, this class of people are yet subject to a species of slavery, but far from resembling that real slavery which still exists in other parts of Europe.

The Germans are robust and well made. A great seriousness, joined to a cool foresight, are the principal traits in their moral character. Their ancient reputation for loyalty and freedom, and their delicate principles of honour, render their mode of life estimable, notwithstanding the want of the varnish of foreign manners. They are destitute of artifice in their resentments; they have recourse neither to faction nor treason; and if they yield to some nations in political *finesse*, they surpass all in valour. They are laborious and persevering; fond of the arts and sciences. They distinguish themselves particularly by a boundless desire of acquiring knowledge, which leads them to be particularly attentive to foreign affairs. They familiarize themselves with most of the European languages, which induces them to travel more than any other people, and also to avow more freely the good they meet with, and to be more equitable in their judgments respecting it, than any other European nation. But for want of a little of the national pride of other people, and concerning themselves too much in foreign affairs, they have too little concern for, and are often unjust towards, their own country. In short, they imitate other nations in every thing, without considering that their own is sufficiently illustrious of itself, as well on account of the number of its inhabitants, their renown, their general disposition, as of the hereditary dignity of their nobility. Most of the states of Europe are governed by princes of German extraction. [*Emert.*]

Government, Laws, Courts, &c.] The German empire, which till the year 843, was connected with France, now forms a state by itself, or may be considered as a combination of upwards of three hundred sovereignties, independent of each other, but composing one political body under an elective head, called the emperor of Germany, or the Roman emperor. Otho the Great, who possessed several Italian provinces, formerly parts of the western empire, left to his successors the title of Roman

emperor, inseparably annexed to the kingdom of Germany; and in consequence of the ancient respect entertained for the Roman name, all the other sovereigns have allowed the emperor the first rank among the European monarchs. Eight princes of the empire, called electors, have the right of electing the emperor. By a fundamental law, known under the name of the Golden Bull, the number of electors was limited to seven; two new electoral dignities have been added since, one of which ceased in the year 1777. The electors are divided into ecclesiastical and temporal: The ecclesiastical electors are the following: 1. The archbishop of Mentz, great chancellor of the empire, and director of the electoral college. In consequence of this presidency, he has the prerogative, on a vacancy of the imperial throne, to give notice of the death of the emperor to the states of the empire, to convoke the diet during the interregnum, and to proclaim the new elected successor. 2. The archbishop of Treves, great chancellor of France and Arelat, a dignity, which, since the separation of France from the empire, is merely nominal. 3. The archbishop of Cologne, great chancellor of Italy, a mere title also. The temporal electors are, 4. The king or elector of Bohemia, cup-bearer of the emperor. 5. The elector of the Palatinate and of Bavaria, great steward. 6. The elector of Saxony, great marshal. 7. The elector of Brandenburg, great chamberlain. 8. The elector of Brunswick, (Hanover) arch-treasurer of the empire. The election is conducted in the following manner: "The vacancy of the imperial throne is announced by the archbishop of Mentz by letters patent or by envoys, in the space of a month, and their election is fixed at the end of three months at Frankfort on the Main. The absence of an elector does not hinder the election, provided he has been legally cited. After some preliminary deliberations upon the *capitulation*, and other objects concerning the empire, and after all the foreign ministers and all the strangers who are not in the suit of some of the electors or electoral ambassadors are gone from the city, the election proceeds in the following order. The electors, in their electoral habits, or the first ambassadors of those who are absent, mount on horseback and go from the town-house to the church of St. Bartholomew, where they celebrate mass. After this, the electors or their representatives take the oath to give their vote to whom they judge most worthy, without engagement, salary or recompense. Thence they enter the Conclave to proceed to the election. The elector of Mayence recites the votes according to the rank of the electors. His own is received by the elector of Saxony. The plurality of votes decides." [*Emert.*]

As soon as an emperor is elected, he is obliged to confirm, by oath, the capitulation he has signed, and which is proposed to him by the electors: He engages likewise by oath to protect the Roman Catholick religion and the Holy See. It is not absolutely necessary that the emperor should be a Roman Catholick, though hitherto no Protestant has been seated on the imperial throne. The prerogatives the emperor acquires by his accession to that dignity, and which are called his *asservata*, are chiefly the following: He is the supreme lord paramount of the Roman empire, of whom the princes are supposed to hold their dominions in fee: He has the power of calling together the diet, over

which he presides in person, or by his commissary, and of ratifying their resolutions by his confirmation. He is the supreme judge, in whose name justice is administered in the high courts of the empire: He can, however, exempt the subordinate states from the jurisdiction of these tribunals, by granting them the privilege *de non appellando*. He is the fountain of honour, and has the power of conferring titles of nobility, such as baron, count, prince, duke, &c. He claims the right of establishing post-offices all over the empire: this right, however, is subject to some limitations: He grants charters to the universities, and confers academical degrees. He is not allowed to raise any taxes, nor to begin an offensive war, or to conclude a peace, nor to alter any law of the empire without the consent of the diet, which may be considered as the supreme power of the German empire. The revenues of the emperor are at present reduced to a very trifling sum: They arise chiefly from the contributions of some imperial towns, and amount to little more than 20,000 florins. In times of war, or other unusual emergencies, the diet allows the emperor extraordinary aids or supplies, called Roman months, and valued at 50,000 florins each. The diet is composed of the emperor and of the immediate states of the empire; the latter are those individuals or societies which share the supreme legislative and executive power of the confederation, by the right of voting in this assembly. Since the year 1663, the diet, which used to assemble formerly at unequal intervals of time, has been held, without interruption, to the present day. The diet exercises all the acts of sovereignty, as far as they concern the interests of the whole confederate political body; it levies taxes, it gives laws, it makes war, and concludes treaties of peace by which the whole empire is bound. It has the power of conferring this right of participation in the government, or of voting at the diet; and can take it away by way of punishment, from such members as have violated the publick peace. In consequence of the difference of religion prevailing in the German empire, the states are divided into the Catholick and Protestant bodies (*Corpus Catholicorum & Corpus Evangelicorum.*) With respect to rank and privilege, they are divided into three colleges: The electoral college; that of the princes, including the immediate prelates and counts; and the college of the imperial cities. Each of these colleges holds separate deliberations, in which the majority of votes decides. That of the electors is under the direction of the elector of Mentz. The college of the princes is subdivided into the ecclesiastical and temporal bench: On the first are seated those archbishops who are not electors, the grand masters of the Teutonick order, and of the order of St. John, the archduke of Austria, and the duke of Burgundy, the bishops and the prelates; the latter have no personal but two collective votes. The Protestant bishop of Lubeck, and the bishop of Osnaburg, when a Protestant, have a separate bench to themselves. On the secular bench, the first seats are held by those princes who are related to the electors; next to them are seated the ancient princely families; next, those families, who, in later times have been raised to the princely dignity; and last of all, the independent counts of the empire, who have only four collective votes. The votes of the ecclesiastical bench amount to 35, those of the temporal

to 65. The college of the imperial cities is divided into two benches, that of the circle of the Rhine, and that of the circle of Swabia; the first has 14, the last 37 votes. Those propositions, which are to pass into a law of the empire, must be agreed to by the three colleges; when this is done, they are called *Resolutions* of the empire. The resolutions must be presented to the emperor for his confirmation, which he has in his power to give or to refuse; when the confirmation is obtained, the resolutions are called *Acts* or *Statutes* of the empire, and acquire the force of laws. At the conclusion of every diet, a collection is made of all the acts passed during the sessions, called the *Recess of the Empire.*

The fundamental laws, or those which settle the constitution of the empire, are, I. Such acts of the diet as are of a publick nature. The most remarkable among them are the following: 1. The Golden Bull, (so called on account of the great gold seal of the emperor affixed to it) which was published at the diet of Nurnberg in the year 1356, and in the reign of Charles IV. It settles every thing relating to the election and coronation of the emperor, and the rights of the electors. The Latin original is preserved at Frankfort on the Maine. 2. The Publick Peace; a collection of regulations for the preservation of the peace between the members of the empire. It was calculated to put a period to the feudal dissensions which harassed Germany in the middle ages. This law was promulgated under Maximilian I. in the year 1495. 3. The Convention of Passau in 1552, and the peace of religion in 1555, by which the Protestant religion as well as the Roman Catholick are acknowledged to be established in the empire. 4. The last recess of the empire of 1654, containing several publick acts, which finally settle several points incompletely arranged in the Westphalian peace. II. The capitulation of the emperor, by which the emperor engages himself to govern according to the laws of the empire, and under the conditions and restrictions imposed on him by the electors, who have the valuable right to check every stretch of imperial power, or to redress grievances crept in, by imposing new conditions at the beginning of a new reign. III. The peace of Westphalia, concluded in the year 1649, which serves for the basis of all subsequent treaties of peace, and, in a great measure, for the foundation of the present political system of Europe. This famous act determines likewise, with great precision, the civil, political and religious rights of each individual state in Germany.

There are two supreme courts of judicature, which have a concurring jurisdiction in the Roman or German Empire. 1. The *Imperial Chamber*, established in 1495, and kept at present at Weltzar, an imperial city in the circle of the Upper Rhine. The emperor has the right of nominating the first judge and the two presidents of this court; 27 assessors or counsellors are nominated by the states of the empire. 2. The *Aulick Council*, depending entirely on the emperor, is established at Vienna, the imperial residence. It consists of a president and 18 counsellors, and is divided into a noble and a learned bench. Seven of the members of this council are Protestants. The judges of the Imperial Chamber receive their salaries from the states of the empire, who have appropriated to their maintenance a particular tax, which

amounts annually to about 90,000 florins. The judges of the Aulick Council are paid by the emperor. In all cases where the statute or fundamental laws of the empire are defective, these two courts adopt the regulations of the Roman law, which is in general introduced into the German courts of justice, except where it is limited or superceded by the particular statutes of each state. To both courts appeals may be made from the decisions of the courts of justice, or of the sovereigns of the German states. In criminal cases, in matters of religion, and in pecuniary law-suits, in which the contested property does not exceed the sum of 400 rix dollars, the decision of the territorial courts or of the sovereign is final. In these cases, however, the party who thinks himself aggrieved by a sentence, is allowed to submit the decision given by the judges of his own country to the examination of the juridical faculty of one or more impartial German universities, by which the decree may be confirmed or reversed. In the dominions of the electors and other princes, who are exempted from appeals to the supreme courts of the empire, courts of appeal are established, in which the decrees of the courts of justice, especially in causes between the sovereign and the subject, may be revised, and if exceptionable, may be set aside.

The states of the empire, considered in their separate capacity, enjoy sovereign power in their respective dominions, limited only by the laws before mentioned, and the jurisdiction of the Imperial Courts, from which, however, the chief among them are exempted. The constitution of the different states is very different; most of them are governed by single persons, as the electorates, principalities, counties, &c. and some have a republican form of government, as the imperial cities. As to the exercise of power, the sovereigns are limited by the states of their countries, who must give their consent to taxes and to new laws; and who may appeal to the high courts of the empire, or to the courts of appeal within their own country, in case of any difference between them and the sovereign. In extreme cases, the states may lay their complaints before the diet. This mode of redressing grievances, provided by the constitution of the German empire, at a time when no standing armies were yet kept, is, it must be owned, of little avail in states where military power is preponderant; yet it is a very effectual check on the tyranny of petit sovereigns. The electors possess some considerable political advantages, besides the right of electing the emperor; their concurrence and consent is necessary to the emperor, whenever he declares war or concludes treaties; they have a particular confederation among themselves, called the *Electoral Union;* they claim the honours allowed to kings, and their ambassadors in foreign courts are in possession of the next rank after those of kings. With regard to foreign countries, each independent German sovereign has the right of entering into treaties, or engaging in wars with them, provided it does not affect the peace of the whole empire, or of any other state of it. The government of most of the imperial cities is a mixture of democracy and aristocracy. The best governed among them are Hamburg, Lubeck and Frankfort; in others, especially in Nurnberg, a rigorous oligarchy prevails.

The power of the two greatest potentates of Germany, whose religious and political interests are opposite, is at present pretty equally balanced: For though Austria is certainly in itself superior in strength to Prussia, yet the combination of the latter, with the mightiest princes in Germany, gives it a sufficient weight to counterbalance that superiority. It may not be improper to observe, that the connections of some parts of Germany, with foreign countries, under one sovereign, though they seemed to promise an accession of power to these provinces, have commonly proved disadvantageous, involving Germany in wars and calamities which would otherwise not have reached it. Thus, for instance, the connection of Hungary with Austria has been the cause of several bloody wars with the Turks; that of Poland with Saxony, and that of England with Hanover, have proved no less prejudicial to Germany than to the countries thus united with it. [*Zimmermann.*]

*Army of the Empire.**] There is, properly speaking, no standing army of the empire; but in time of war the states of the empire must furnish their respective quotas of soldiers, called their *contingent* according to an agreement made in the year 1681. At present the army of the empire when complete, must amount to 28,000 infantry, and 12,000 cavalry. The quotas for the different circles are regulated as follows:

	Infantry.	Cavalry.
Circle of Austria	5507	2521
——— Burgundy	2707	1321
——— Bavaria	1494	800
——— Franconia	1902	980
——— Swabia	2707	1321
——— Lower Rhine	2707	600
——— Upper Rhine	2853	491
——— Westphalia	2707	1321
——— Upper Saxony	2707	1321
——— Lower Saxony	2707	1321
Total	27,998	11,997

In case 1½ million of florins should be necessary to be raised for the war and for the army of the empire, the shares of this sum stand thus:

	Florins.	Kreutzer.
Circle of Austria	306,390	20
——— Burgundy	156,360	15
——— Bavaria	91,261	5
——— Franconia	113,481	25
——— Swabia	156,360	15
——— Lower Rhine	105,654	5
——— Upper Rhine	101,411	30
——— Westphalia	156,360	15
——— Upper Saxony	156,360	15
——— Lower Saxony	156,360	15
	1,499,997	150

* Zimmermann.

Religion.] Since the year 1555, the three following denominations of christians are the established religions of the empire: The Roman Catholick, the Lutheran, and the Calvinist, generally called the reformed religion. The first prevails in the south of Germany, the Lutheran in the north, and the reformed near the Rhine. In the subsequent civil wars, of which religious bigotry was the principal cause, the rights of these rival religions, as established by the religious peace of 1555, had undergone great alterations whenever the provinces changed masters; and the confusion arising from the claims of the oppressed parties, and from the encroachments of the victorious, was become extreme. It was at length settled by the peace of Westphalia, that the religion of the different states should remain as it had been in the year 1624, which is on that account, called the definitive year, *Annus normalis.* According to this agreement, the sovereign is obliged to leave each of these religions, established, or tolerated, or excluded, as they were at that period; yet the right of correcting abuses in the publick worship, was reserved to him. The Jews are tolerated throughout the empire. There are likewise in the empire sectaries of all the denominations mentioned under the article of the European religions. The Roman Catholick church acknowledges the supremacy of the Pope; and in consequence of an agreement between the Germanick church and the Holy See, the latter acquired the right of confirming all the prelates of the empire. Their superior clergy consists of eight archbishops, forty bishops, and many abbots; some of whom, as well as most of the archbishops and bishops, are sovereign princes. There is a very great number of Roman Catholick convents, and several commanderies of the knights of the Teutonick Order, as well as of the Order of St. John. The grand masters of these Orders must be Roman Catholick noblemen; the residence of the first is Mergentheim, in Franconia; that of the latter is Heitersheim, in the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The Protestant clergy is governed by assemblies, called Consistories, under the control of the sovereign of each state. It is composed of superintendants general, who are commonly members of the Consistory, superintendants or inspectors, and ministers of the parishes. All the Roman Catholicks, or the Corpus Catholicorum, is under the direction of the elector of Mentz; the Corpus Evangelicorum, or the Protestants, under the direction of the elector of Saxony. These directors manage the concerns of religion at the diet. To balance the rights and influence of the Catholicks and Protestants, of which the former have a majority of votes in the diet, the states of either party have the right of succession (jus eundi in partes.) In consequence of this right, the Protestants or Catholicks, if they are afraid that their interests, as a body, might be affected by a majority of votes, may come to a separate resolution, agreed upon among themselves, which cannot be annihilated by the ordinary manner of voting; and by this means they can defeat any attack upon their religious and political rights.

General remarks, respecting the Military, Politicks and Literature of Germany.] The German empire, when considered as one single power or state, at the head of which the emperor stands, is of no polit-

ical consequence in Europe,* because, from the inequality and weak connection of its parts, and the different nature of their government, from the insignificancy of its ill-composed army, and above all, from the different views and interests of its masters, it is next to impossible its force should be united, compact, and uniform. There are, however, in this empire, two potentates entitled to rank among the first deciding powers of Europe; and the intrinsick power of Germany, in some sense, is superior to that of any European country. The number of soldiers in the service of all the German princes amount to 500,000, even after deducting from the Prussian army 45,000† men for the provinces not belonging to the German empire, and 76000‡ men of the Austrian army, for the kingdom of Hungary and the Italian dominions of Austria. The actual revenues of the German states (exclusive of the kingdom of Prussia, and the Austrian dominions not belonging to Germany) amount annually to near 100 millions of dollars, or near 18,000,000l. sterling. Considering the cheapness of victuals and labour in most parts of Germany, this sum is really astonishing; yet the effects of so much national wealth is much less perceptible, than it would be in France or England, where a large metropolis would collect it, as it were, into a focus, and assist its circulation throughout the provinces. Germany neither has, nor can have, properly speaking, a capital, while it is divided among so great a number of sovereigns.

The Germans can boast of a greater number of useful discoveries and inventions in arts and sciences, than any other European nation. They have the honour of discovering the Art of Printing about the year 1450. It would be easy to enumerate nearly one hundred of their inventions without filling up the list with mere improvements in machines and mechanical arts. Improvements of this sort are greatly facilitated by a concurrence of favourable circumstances, such as an advantageous situation for commerce, long and uninterrupted peace, great and easy influx of wealth, and the concomitant increase of luxury. Add to these the inventive and imitative genius of the Germans, the emulation which reigns among the literati, and the liberty of thinking and writing without restraint, have occasioned rapid advances in the sciences. Besides, an open and extensive market for the productions of manufacturing industry, and the frequent calls of luxury for gratifications of new imagined wants, multiply the arts; the latter assist each other in perfecting their respective instruments,

* Emert, whom we have so often quoted in our account of Germany, seems to be of a different opinion. He maintains that there is sufficient *force* in their system of government to attain the end which the Germanick body proposes to itself, and that foreign authors speak the truth when they say, that "the Germanick body is formidable to foreign nations, by its extent, by the number and valour of its inhabitants, and placed almost in the centre of Europe it makes all other powers respect it. And its Constitution, which takes from it the means and the will of making conquest, makes it also the rock against which conquerors dash and destroy themselves. Itself the centre of the negociations of Europe, it cannot be shaken, without shaking violently at the same time all the neighbouring States, and even causing a considerable shock in the affairs of Europe." [*Emert.*]

† 50,000 } *Emert.*
‡ 90,000 }

and afford many opportunities for ingenious combinations of mechanism. In a country, whose commerce is confined by natural and political limits, where the reward of genius and industry is not always opulence and splendour, the national character shares with chance alone the claim to a number of important inventions, some of which have been productive of the principal revolutions of modern life. Literature and the sciences are arrived in Germany at a very high degree of eminence, both with respect to universality and solidity. Within these fifty years their improvements have been rapid and astonishing. Universal geography, chronology, antiquities and heraldry owe their perfection to the Germans, and the science of *Statisticks* its origin. The German language has been greatly cultivated and enriched with many excellent compositions in all branches of polite and useful literature, which have been marked with the applause, and translated into the languages of neighbouring nations. Many branches of useful knowledge, hitherto confined to particular classes of men, and difficult to be acquired, have been reduced to a scientifick form in Germany ; they form indispensable parts of polite education, and are publickly taught in the universities. The theory of trades and mechanical arts, the principles of private and publick economy, of internal administration, and the science of finances ; the knowledge of the political situation, resources and wealth of every state, have been added to the established list of academical sciences, and they employ the talents of a great number of writers, under the name of Technology, Economy, Science of Finances, and Statistick.

Many other sciences have undergone considerable changes. Their principles have been more thoroughly investigated, their proper limits assigned ; they have received great improvements with respect to methodical arrangement and practical utility. The science of education has experienced a total and most advantageous revolution. In no other country is this important science so universally and so successfully attended to ; nor can any country boast of so many institutions of education. Upwards of fifty writers, possessed of laudable zeal and great abilities, assisted by practical experience, and encouraged by some of the wisest and most patriotick sovereigns, have for some years past applied their talents entirely to the improvement of the method of instructing, and to the establishing of institutions, calculated to promote the happiness of future generations. The beneficial labours of these men extend to the lowest ranks of society. Several country schools are established, in which this numerous and valuable class of people are instructed in religion, in the duties of their station, and the proper use of their reason ; and where they are brought up in habits of industry, which attach them to their situation in life. The great plan these friends of mankind pursue, is to render education, so long neglected by statesmen, an essential part of internal politicks. They inculcate the necessity of bestowing no less pains on the formation of active habits, the early impression of religious and moral principles, the developement of the bodily and mental powers, by the easiest and most natural steps, the preservation of the health of young people, than on their progress in classical and scientifical knowledge.

The progress of the Germans in natural philosophy and mathematicks is better known abroad, than their progress in metaphysicks and divinity, which has, at least, kept pace with the former. The general taste for literature and scientifick inquiry, which is the bent the genius and the industry of the nation has taken, in consequence of the singular political constitution, has diffused a vast mass of knowledge through Germany, especially through its northern parts. In these provinces the number of literati is exceedingly great; they may be said to form a particular republick of letters, distinguished by liberality of manners, by a considerable degree of independence, and a very perceptible influence on the government of the states, by the direction of the publick opinion. The number of readers in the German empire, and in the neighbouring countries, especially in the north of Europe, where the German language has an extensive circulation, is large enough to encourage the publication of no less than 5000* annual literary productions, of which two thirds are original performances, and one third translations from other languages. It is true, this rage of writing and of reading has some disadvantages: among which, the publication of a great number of wretched books is one of the most conspicuous. Yet these are either calculated for a particular publick use, or they are soon buried in the oblivion they deserve; while on the other hand, the beneficial consequences resulting from this universal application to literature are greatly preponderant. Besides the obvious advantages of destroying ignorance and prejudice, of spreading liberality of sentiment, it keeps up the connection, otherwise not sufficiently binding, between the different parts of the empire; it excites a spirit of emulation; it inspires a salutary dread to sovereigns to commit such actions as might draw publick censure upon them; it acquaints the different classes of men with their rights, and gives energy to the voice and the complaints of the publick. The sciences in Germany appear in no unimportant point of view, when considered as the means of affording a comfortable subsistence to an astonishing number of people employed in teaching, or in writing on the sciences, and to many thousands of paper manufacturers, printers and booksellers. The book trade is no where equally important; at the Leipsick fair, books are sold and exchanged to the value of several hundred thousand dollars.

There are 38 universities in Germany, of which 19 belong to the Protestants, and 17 to the Roman Catholicks; though the latter ought to have many more, considering the proportion of their numbers to those of the Protestants, which is as two to one. Of all the German institutions of education, the universities are still the most faulty, considering the wants of our age; yet most of the Protestant universities in Germany are the least exceptionable institutions of that kind in Europe. The number of literary and scientifical societies, publick libraries, academies of arts, collections of pictures, military academies, &c. is greater in Germany than in any other country.

* In the year 1792, "at the Easter fair, (there is another not so productive, at Michaelmas) were published 2227 new books, inclusive of 468 continuations, 194 new editions, and 154 translations; most of them in the Belles Lettres, Geography, History and Physick." [*Professor Ebeling's letter to the Author.*]

History.] Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, king of France, was the founder of the German Empire in A. D. 800. Leopold II. late Emperor, died of a pleuritick fever, after four days illness, March 1, 1792. His son Francis, the present Emperor, was raised to the imperial throne the middle of July following. He was born Feb. 3, 1768; married Jan. 1788, Elizabeth Princess of Wirtemburg, who died 1790. He married his cousin Maria Theresa, of Naples, September 17, 1790, by whom he has two daughters.

AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS.

THE Divisions, Extent, Population, and Chief Towns of the Austrian Dominions, are noticed in the following

TABLE.

Division of all the Austrian Dominions.	Areas in Sq. Miles.	Population.	Pop. for each Sq. M.	CHIEF TOWNS. Names.	No. of Inhabitants.
	180,496	20,000,000	111	Vienna (*Reic.*)	206,000 } 270,000
		19,611,000	109	Linz	15,200
A. Countries belonging to the German Empire		St. T.	St T.		
				Gratz	55,000
				Clagenfurt	7,000
1. Circle of Austria	34,320	4,182,000	122	Laubach	9,500
			(B.)	Foria	1,900
				Triest	9,000
2. Kingdom of Bohemia	15,376	2,266,000	148	Prague	80,000
				Carlsbad	
				Eger	
3. Marquisate of Moravia	6,336	1,137,000	179	Olmutz	11,000
				Brunn	13,000
4. Part of Silesia	1,296	200,000	154	Troppau	8,000
				Teschen	
5. Austrian Netherlands	7,504	1,880,000	250	Brussels	80,000
				Louvaines	40,000
				Antwerp	40,000
				Malines	20,000
				Ghent	40,000
				Ostend	12,000
				Mons	10,000
				Namur	20,000
				Luxemburg	8,000
				Limburg	8,000

B. Countries independent of the German Empire				Milan	132,000
1. Lombardy, Italy	3,072	1,324,000	431	Pavia	27,600
				Cremona	25,000
				Mantua	23,000
				Ofen	21,000
2. Hungary	59,536	3,170,000	53	Presburg	27,000
				Oedenburg	11,000
				Theresienstadt	15,000
				Pest	13,300
				Chemnitz	8,000
				Tyrnau	7,300
3. Illyria	12,928	620,030	49	Nartstadt, Peterwaradein	
4. Transylvania	16,800	1,250,000	74	Hermanstadt	15,000
				Kronstadt	
5. Buckowina	22,848	130,000	46	Czernowiz, Suezowa	
6. Gallicia and Lodomiria	20,480	2,800,000	136	Lemberg	20,000
				Brody	15,000

Wealth, Commerce, &c.] The provinces of the Austrian monarchy are not only favourably situated as to climate, but they may be reckoned among the most fertile in Europe. There is scarce any valuable product which is not to be met with in them. Bohemia produces and exports flax, wool, hides, skins, hops, iron, steel, tin, cobalt, vitriol, brimstone, alum, garnets, and other precious stones; it imports salt, wine, silk, cotton, spices, &c. Upon the whole, the value of exports exceeds that of the imports by two millions of florins. Silesia exports large quantities of linen, and Moravia has a great number of manufactures of all sorts, chiefly of cloth, the produce of which amounts to the value of 18 millions of florins. Austria is certainly one of the most fertile provinces of Germany. In seven manufactories of cotton cloth are employed 140,000 people. The lower division of it produces upwards of 60,000 cwt. of salt, value 4½ millions of florins, the expenses of the works not exceeding one million. The saffron of this province is remarkably good. The woollen manufacture at Lintz is very considerable, and employs upwards of 30,000 people. There are besides many other manufactures, viz. of glass, of hardware, &c. The art of making iron wire is carried on to such a degree of perfection, that 6,130 fish-hooks, worth 26 florins, are made of half an ounce of metal. Austria produces 2,000,000 eymers of wine, of which a great part is exported. The exports of Lower Austria to the Levant, are computed at six millions; but the imports, consisting of the articles of cotton, goats or camel hair, spices and coffee, at nine millions. The district, comprehending the provinces of Stiria, Carinthia and Carniola, called by the German geographers Interior Austria, is famous for its minerals. Besides some gold, up-

wards of 1000lb. of silver, 300,000lb. of quick-silver, 1,000,000cwt. of iron, 150,000cwt. of salt, 15000cwt. of salt-petre, and great quantities of lead, copper, vitriol, cobalt, brimstone, are the produce of these rich mines. In Carniola the linen manufactures produce to the value of 400,000 florins of that article. Till the acquisition of Venice the centre of the Austrian trade was Trieste, declared a free port by the present emperor, who is desirous to establish there an East-India Company. Here is the market to which all the European nations resort for the productions of the Austrian dominions. The province of Tyrol has also rich mines; it produces wine, and has manufactures of glass, leather and silk. Lombardy, the population of which is prodigious, produces vast quantities of silk, to the amount of 4,500,000 florins. It exports also corn and rice for 700,000, linen for 400,000, cattle and horses 1,500,000 florins. All the various articles of produce scattered through the other provinces are found united, and in a much greater proportion, in the kingdom of Hungary, which if it was not too thinly peopled, would be the richest country of Europe. It produces annually 25,000lb. of silver, containing gold. In 1779, the mines of Schemnitz and Cremnitz yielded 1,215lb. of gold. The gold wash of the Bannat yields upwards of 1000 ducats. It is supposed that Hungary and Transylvania together produce gold and silver to the value of 7,000,000 florins annually, 34,000cwt. of copper, besides iron, quick-silver, salt, and marble. The value of the mines of the Austrian Monarchy is computed to amount to 19,000,000 florins. It is well known that Hungary produces an incredible quantity of excellent wines, the most delicious of which is the famous Tokay. If several sorts of the Hungarian wines could be longer kept, and if the duties on them and the expenses of carriage were not so very high, the riches accruing from them to this country would be immense. Among the other valuable productions of Hungary, we shall mention hemp, flax, and even cotton, barilla, rice and tobacco. In 1779, there were exported from Trieste 100,759lb. of snuff, and upwards of 3,000,000lb. of tobacco in leaves, exclusive of 2,500,000lb. exported from Fiume and Buhary. This province, rich in every respect, sells every year 150,000 head of live cattle, and 40,000 hogs. Gallicia, besides abounding in other minerals, is famous for its immense salt works at Wielitzka. This mine of salt rock has been worked these 600 years past; it extends, according to Mr. Coxe, about 669 feet in length, 1,115 in breadth, and 743 in depth. It yielded to the crown of Poland, to which it belonged till 1773, a revenue of three millions and a half of Polish florins annually: It has been ceded to the emperor by the late treaty of partition. The quantity of salt dug out every year amounted some years ago to 700,000cwt. The salt-works of Sambor and Bochnia are also very rich; they yield salt to the value of one million of florins. The few preceding facts shew clearly the value of these provinces. When population shall be increased, and manufactures established, in proportion to the natural riches of the country, the wealth of the Austrian Monarchy promises to be superior to that of any nation in Europe. At present there is a great want of navigable canals and other conveniences for inland commerce. Many of

the spontaneous productions are not sufficiently attended to; as, for instance, oil. The Austrian Netherlands have been long famous for their fisheries, corn, madder, and flax of a superior fineness, of which the Brabant lace is made, which brings a great deal of money into the country.

Cities.] Vienna is the capital of the circle of Austria, and, being the residence of the emperor, is supposed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble and strong city, and the princes of the House of Austria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna contains an excellent university, a bank which is in the management of her own magistrates, and a court of commerce immediately subject to the Aulick council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a sixth part of the town; but the suburbs are larger than the city. It would be endless to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, two of which are imperial; its squares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curiosities. Among its rich convents is one for the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman, St. Colman, the patron of Austria; and one of the six gates of this city is called the Scots gate, in remembrance of some notable exploits performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the suburbs, are computed at about three hundred thousand; and the encouragement given them by their sovereigns, has rendered this city the rendezvous of all the nations around.

After all that has been said of this magnificent city, the most candid and sensible of those who have visited it are far from being lavish in its praise. The streets, excepting those in the suburbs, are narrow and dirty; the houses and furniture of the citizens are greatly disproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, squares and other publick buildings; but above all, the excessive imposts laid by the House of Austria upon every commodity in its dominions, must always keep the manufacturing part of their subjects poor. His late imperial majesty was sensible of these truths, which were plain to all the world but his predecessors and their counsellors: He examined things with his own eyes, and descended from that haughtiness of demeanour which rendered the imperial court so long disagreeable, and indeed ridiculous to the rest of Europe. In general, the condition of the Austrian subjects has been greatly meliorated since the accession of his late majesty to the imperial throne; great encouragement hath been given to the Protestants, and many of the Catholick religious houses, convents, &c. were suppressed by him.

Venice is seated on 72 islands at the north end of the Adriatick. Over the several canals of the city are thrown 4 or 500 bridges. The Riotto cost 250,000 ducats.

Prague has a population of 80,000. It stands on the Mulda and is the metropolis of Bohemia. Jews constitute a sixth part of the population. Gratz the capital of Stiria has 35,000 inhabitants.

Presburg the capital of Hungary stands on the Danube, with a population of 27,000. The river here is 250 yards wide; a fourth part of the inhabitants are Lutherans; there are many Jews in the city.

Buda contains upwards of 20,000 inhabitants; Cracow 24,000, Brunn, 18,000, Olmutz, 12,000, Insprunck and Trent each contain 10,000, and Trieste 18,000. This last place for a long time was the only seaport of all Austria. It stands on a gulf of the Adriatick. The neighbourhood produces excellent wines. [*Pinkerton.*]

Finances.] The finances of the Austrian Monarchy amount to above 90 millions of florins, exclusive of the revenues of Gallicia, Lodomiria and Buckowina, viz.

Of Bohemia		15,736,069
— Silesia		557,209
— Austria		23,014,276
— Moravia		5,793,120
— Stiria		5,889,221
— Carinthia		2,386,884
— Carniola		2,089,952
— Friaul		357,368
— Tyrol		3,658,712
— Austria Interior		2,876,177
— Hungary		18,004,153
— Transylvania		3,941,707
— Lombardia		2,909,171
— Netherlands		3,184,135
— Illyria	1,000,000	
— Buckowina	300,000	Schloez.
— Gallicia and Lodomiria	12,000,000	

The debts of the Austrian Monarchy amount to about 200 millions of florins. In 1770, the publick expenditure amounted to 83¼ millions, and was exceeded by the revenue by upwards of six millions remaining in the treasury.

Army.] The Austrian army, according to the new regulations of 1779, amounted to 283,000 men. The infantry consists of 37 regiments, of 3,120 men each, or in all 177,840 men.

Grenadiers	13,182
Cavalry	44,100
Artillery	11,000
Croats, Wallachian, Sclavonian troops	400,000
Pontoniers	600
Mineurs	640
Sappeurs	280
Tchaikists	1,200
Engineers	200

There are besides the general, staff or field engineers, &c. according to others, 300,000 men (in 1783.)

Another statement.

Infantry	170,000
Cavalry	50,000
Garrisons and other corps	60,000
	280,000

There is at Wienerish Neustadt a famous military academy for 400 cadets; at Vienna an academy of engineers, and each regiment has a school, in which forty sons of soldiers are educated.

Natural Curiosities.] The salt mines in Wielitska, 8 miles south of Cracow, are a curiosity. The mines are 738 feet deep, 200 feet wide, or 1115 according to other accounts; 3600 feet long; 700 people are constantly employed in digging and blowing rocks of pure salt. The revenue from these mines before they fell into the hands of Austria was 100,000l. per annum.

The lake of Cirkuitz or the Zirchnitzer Sea, 8 miles long and 4 broad, in the month of June descends through many apertures into the ground; in September it rises again, after yielding rich pasturage through the summer. In the winter it abounds with fish.

The lake Jesero in the isle of Cherso diffuses its waters only every fifth year.

Near Trautenau is what may be called a forest of stones, from sixty to 150 feet high; they are by some thought to be the skeleton of a hill. [*Pinkerton, Wittman.*]

General Remarks.] The Austrian Monarchy wants nothing but a long peace to increase in population and industry. In both respects the country has already gained much by the wisdom of one of the late emperors, who removed one of the greatest obstacles to internal improvement, religious intolerance. The Roman Catholick religion is the established religion of the monarchy: There are, however, at least 80,000 Protestants in the provinces belonging to the German empire. In Hungary the number of Protestants is so great, that since the act of toleration has been published, no less than 200 churches have been allowed to them. There are, besides, many thousand Greeks, 223,000 Jews, and about 50,000 Egyptians or Gypsies, in in the Austrian dominions. Some individuals are immensely rich. Prince Linchtenstein has an income of 90,000l. sterling per annum. At the beginning of the present reign there were upwards of 2,000 convents of monks and nuns, which are now wisely reduced to 1,143.

The arts and sciences, hitherto greatly neglected, begin to make considerable progress. The emperor Joseph appropriated the greatest part of the revenues, arising from the estates of the secularized convents, to the improvement of the schools and the encouragement of literary merit. The universities of the Austrian dominions are not yet equal to those of the Protestant countries of Germany; they are founded in the following places; at Vienna, Prague, Pest, Lemberg, Louvain and Fryebourg in Brisgau. Hungary chiefly boasts of Buda, though the Jesuits instituted academies at Raab and Caschau. The university of Buda, called by the Germans Offen, possesses an income of 20,000l. sterling a year. There is a Calvinist College at

Debretzin; and the bishop of Erlau has lately established a splendid university in that city.

The government is, in certain respects, strictly monarchical; however, in the provinces of Hungary, Illyria, Transylvania, Tyrol, and the Netherlands, the states have preserved so much of their ancient consequence, as to prevent new taxes from being imposed on those provinces without their consent. The cities of Brussels and Milan are the seats of the two viceroys, or governour-generals of the Netherlands and the Italian provinces. Joseph II. rendered an essential service to humanity, in abolishing the servitude or villanage of the peasants of Bohemia.

BOHEMIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 478, Breadth 322 } between { 48° and 52° north latitude. 12° and 19° east longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the north; by Poland and Hungary, on the east; by Austria and Bavaria, on the south; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the west; formerly comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Silesia; and 3. Moravia.

To what we have already said of Bohemia, under the head of Austria, we add the following particulars:

Mountains and Rivers.] Bohemia, though almost surrounded with mountains, contains none of note or distinction: Its woods are many, and the chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldaw and Eger.

Archbishopricks and Bishopricks.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbishoprick. The bishopricks are Koningsgratz, Breslau, and Olmutz.

Language.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Sclavonian, but they generally speak German and High Dutch.

University.] The only university in Bohemia, is that of Prague.

Cities and Towns.] Prague the capital of Bohemia, is one of the finest and most magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is so large, that the grand Prussian army, in its last siege, never could completely invest it. For this reason, it is able to make a vigorous defence in case of a regular siege. The inhabitants are thought not to be proportionate to its capaciousness, being computed at 80,000. It contains 92 churches and chapels, and 40 cloisters. It is a place of little or no trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews, of whom there are 13,000, are said to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, some of which are fortified, but they are neither remarkable for strength nor manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia: It is well fortified, and has manu-

factures of woollen, iron, glass, paper, and gunpowder. Breslau, the capital of Silesia, hath been already described.

Commerce and Manufactures.] See Austria.

Constitution and Government.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian constitution still subsist; but the government under the emperor is despotick. Their states are composed of the clergy, nobility and gentry, and representatives of towns.

Religion.] The preponderant religion of the Austrian dominions is the Roman Catholick, attended with considerable toleration. In Bohemia and Moravia are protestants of various sects; in Vienna are Lutherans; in Transylvania they are numerous, and in Hungary they are equal in numbers with the Catholicks. The archbishop of Gran has an income of 36,000l. per annum; the others do not exceed 8000l.

History.] The Bohemian nobility used to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany sometimes imposed a king upon them, and at length usurped that throne themselves. In the year 1438, Albert II. of Austria, received three crowns: that of Hungary, the Empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414 John Huss and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Constance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occasioned an insurrection in Bohemia: The people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council chamber; and the famous Zisca, assembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in several engagements, and drove the Imperialists out of the kingdom. The divisions of the Hussites among themselves enabled the emperors to keep possession of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing, in the year 1618, a Protestant king, in the person of the Prince Palatine, son-in-law to James I. of England. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and being stripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for a subsistence. After a war of 30 years duration, which desolated the whole empire, the Bohemians, since that time, have remained subject to the House of Austria.

HUNGARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles		
Length	300	between	17° and 23° E. longitude.
Breadth	200		45° and 49° N. latitude.

Boundaries.] THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the House of Austria (for it formerly included Transylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Moilachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries) is bounded by Poland on the north; by Transylvania and Walachia, east; by Sclavonia, south; and by Ausiria and Moravia, west.

The kingdom of Hungary is usually divided into Upper and Lower Hungary.

UPPER HUNGARY, NORTH OF THE DANUBE.	LOWER HUNGARY, SOUTH OF THE DANUBE.
Chief Towns.	*Chief Towns.*
Presburg, situated on the Danube, E. lon. 17° 30′, N. lat. 48° 20′.	Buda, on the Danube, E. lon. 19° 20′, N. lat. 47° 40′.
Newhausel, N. W.	Gran, on the Danube, above Buda.
Leopolstadt, N. W.	Comorra, on the Danube, in the island of Schut.
Chremnits, N. W.	Raab, on the Danube, opposite to the island of Schut.
Schemnits, in the middle.	Atlenburg, W. opposite to the island of Schut.
Esperies, N.	Weissenburg, or Alba Regalis, situated E. of the lake, called the Platten Sea.
Chaschaw, N.	Kanisba, S. W. of the Platten Sea.
Tokay, N. E.	Five Churches, N. of the river Drave.
Zotmar, N. E.	
Unguar, N. E.	
Mongats, N. E.	
Waradin Great, E.	
Segedin, S. E.	
Agria, in the middle.	
Pest, on the Danube, opposite to Buda.	

To which may be added Temeswar, which has been considered as distinct from Hungary, because it was formerly governed by an independent king; and it has several times been in possession of the Turks; but the Austrians gaining possession of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary, in 1778. The province of Temeswar is 94 miles long, and 67 broad, containing about 3,850 square miles: It has been divided into four districts, Csadat, Temeswar, Werschez and Lugos. Temeswar, the principal town, is situated E. lon. 22° 15′, N. lat. 45° 54′.

Air, Soil and Produce.] The air, and consequently the climate of the southern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, stagnated waters and marshes; but the northern parts being mountainous and barren, the air is sweet and wholesome. No country in the world can boast a richer soil, than that plain which extends three hundred miles from Presburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, grass, esculent plants, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, pulse, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, chesnuts and wood: Corn is in such plenty, that it sells for one sixth part of its price in England.

Rivers.] These are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyesse, Merish, and the Temes.

Water.] Hungary contains several lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains of considerable extent, and abounding with fish. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are esteemed the most sovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings,

raised by the Turks, when in possession of the country, particularly those of Buda, are suffered to go to decay.

Mountains.] The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their sides grow the richest grapes in the world.

The circuit of the Carpathian mountains is about 500 miles. Among which the Kesmark Peak is 8,508 feet above the level of the sea; the Lomnitz is 8,640, and the Krivan 8,343.

Metals and Minerals.] Hungary is remarkably well stocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and silver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quick-silver, crysocolla, and terra sigillata. Before Hungary became the seat of destructive wars between the Turks and Christians, or fell under the power of the House of Austria, those mines were furnished with proper works and workmen, and produced vast revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and silver employed mint-houses, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but all those mines are now greatly diminished in their value, their works being destroyed or demolished; some of them, however, still subsist, to the great emolument of the natives.

Vegetable and animal Productions.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horses, generally mouse-coloured, and highly esteemed by military officers, so that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Presburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the same with those of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tokay, are preferable to those of any other country, at least in Europe.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs and Diversions.] Before the Turks got possession of Constantinople, it is said, that Hungary was one of the most populous and powerful kingdoms in Europe; and if the House of Austria should give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become so again a century hence. Hungary at present is thought to contain about 3,170,000 inhabitants.

The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themselves. They pique themselves on being descended from those heroes, who formed the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. In their persons they are well made. Their fur caps, their close-bodied coats, girded by a sash, and their cloak or mantle, which is so contrived as to buckle under the arm, so that the right hand may be always at liberty, give them an air of military dignity. The men shave their beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips. Their usual arms are a broad-sword and a kind of pole-ax, besides their fire arms. The ladies are reckoned handsomer than those of Austria, and they have a sable dress, with sleeves straight to their arms, and their stays fastened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons. Both men and women, in what they call the mine towns, wear fur and even sheepskin dresses. The inns upon the roads are most miserable hovels,

and even those seldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peasants, and their poultry, live in the same apartment with their owners. The gout and the fever, owing to the unwholesomeness of the air, are the predominant diseases in Hungary. The natives in general leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other strangers settled in their country, the flatness of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diversions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletick kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their ancestors, even since the beginning of the last century, were so jealous of their liberties, that rather than submit to the tyranny of the House of Austria, they often put themselves under the protection of the Ottoman court; but their fidelity to the late empress-queen, notwithstanding the provocations they received from her house, will be always remembered to their honour.

The inhabitants of Temeswar, a province lately incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary, are computed at about 450,000. There are in this country many faraons, or gypsies, supposed to be real descendants of the ancient Egyptians. They are said to resemble the ancient Egyptians in their features, in their propensity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and customs; and it is asserted, that the lascivious dances of Isis, the worship of onions, many famous Egyptian superstitions and specificks, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are still in use among the female gypsies in Temeswar.

Religion.] The established religion of the Hungarians is the Roman Catholick, though the major part of the inhabitants are Protestants, or Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exercise of their religious liberties.

Archbishopricks and Bishopricks.] The archbishopricks are Presburg, Gran and Colocza. The bishopricks are, Great Waradin, Agria, Vesprin, Raab and Five Churches. The archbishop of Gran has about 36,000l. per annum; the others do not exceed 8,000l.

Language.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Sclavonians and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is said to approach near the Hebrew. The better and middle rank speak German, and almost all, even of the common people, speak Latin, either pure or barbarous, so that the Latin may be said to be here still a living language.

Universities.] In the universities (if they can properly be so called) of Firnan, Buda, Raab and Caschaw are professors of the several arts and sciences, who used generally to be Jesuits; so that the Lutherans and Calvinists, who are more numerous than the Roman Catholicks in Hungary, go to the German and other universities.

Antiquities and Curiosities, natural and artificial.] The artificial curiosities of this country consist of its bridges, baths and mines. The bridge of Essex, built over the Danube and Drave, is, properly speaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain distances. It was an important pass during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Pest; and about

twenty Hungarian miles distant from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge, erected by the Romans, judged to be the most magnificent of any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to distinguish them from the like works in other countries.

One of the most remarkable natural curiosities of Hungary, is a cavern in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the south, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad; its subterraneous passages consist entirely of solid rock, stretching away farther south than has yet been discovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be 50 fathoms, and the breadth 26. Many other wonderful particulars are related of this cavern, which is an atricle in natural philosophy.

Cities, Towns, Forts, and other Edifices, publick and private. These are greatly decayed from their ancient magnificence, but many of the fortifications are still very strong, and kept in good order. Presburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia were kept, but were lately removed to Vienna. The crown was sent in the year 1000 by pope Sylvester II. to Stephen, king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors; it is of solid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with 53 sapphires, 50 rubies, one large emerald, and 338 pearls. Besides these stones are the images of the apostles and the patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a silver patriarchical cross, which was afterwards inserted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation, a bishop carries it before the king. From the cross is derived the title of apostolick king; the use of which was renewed under the reign of the empress queen Maria Theresa. The sceptre and the globe of the kingdom are of Arabian gold; the mantle, which is of fine linen, is the work of Gisele, spouse of St. Stephen, who embroidered in gold the image of Jesus Christ crucified, and many other images of the patriarchs and apostles, with a number of inscriptions. The sword is two-edged, and rounded at the point. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its strength and fortifications; and the same may be said of Pest, which lies on the opposite side of the Danube. Raab is likewise a strong city, as are Gran and Cormorra. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

Constitution and Government.] The Hungarians dislike the term of queen, and even called their late sovereign king Theresa. Their government preserves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, a Hungary-office, which resembles our chancery, and which resides at Vienna; as the Stadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the British privy-council, but has a municipal jurisdiction, does at Presburg. Every royal town has its senate; and the Gespan chafts resembles the English justices of the peace. Besides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

History.] The Huns, after subduing this country in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. They were succeeded by the Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards; they by the Avari, and the

Sclavi were planted in their stead in the beginning of the ninth century. At the close of it, the Anigours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took possession of the country. Hungary was formerly an assemblage of different states, and the first who assumed the title of king, was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced christianity. In his reign the form of government was established, and the crown to be elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of those conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks and other powers. In the 15th century, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladislaus, bravely repulsed the Turks, when they invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raised Mathias Corvinus, son of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting against Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle had almost proved fatal to Hungary; but the archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the sister of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he succeeded with some difficulty, and that kingdom has ever since belonged to the House of Austria, though by its constitution its crown ought to be elective.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

WE have thrown those countries under one division, for several reasons, and particularly because we have no account sufficiently exact of their extent and boundaries. The best account of them follows: Transylvania belongs to the House of Austria, and is bounded on the North, by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the East, by Moldavia and Walachia; on the South, by Walachia; and on the West, by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between 22 and 25 degrees of east longitude, and 45 and 48 of north latitude. Its length is extended about 185, and its breadth 120 miles; and contains nearly 14,400 square miles, but it is surrounded on all sides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables and animals, are almost the same with those of Hungary. The air is wholesome and temperate; but their wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanstadt, and its interior government still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes. They owe not much more than a nominal subjection to the Austrians, who leave them in possession of most of their privileges. Catholicks, Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other sectaries, here enjoy their several religions. Transylvania is thought to add but little to the Austrian revenue, though it exports some metals and salt to Hungary. The other large places are Sageswar, Millenback and Nemark. All sorts of provisions are very

cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanstadt is a large, strong, and well built city, as are Clausenburg and Weissenburg. The seat of government is at Hermanstadt, and the governour is assisted by a council made up of Roman Catholicks, Calvinists and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by summons, and receives the commands of their sovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonstrances and representations in case of grievances.

Transylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they could be subdued. It was overrun by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their descendants retain the same military character. The population of the country is not ascertained; but if the Transylvanians can bring to the field, as has been asserted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants must be considerable. At present its military force is reduced to six regiments of 1,500 men each; but it is well known, that during the last two wars, in which the House of Austria was engaged, the Transylvanians did great services. Hermanstadt is its only bishoprick; and the Transylvanians at present seem to trouble themselves little, either about learning or religion, though the Roman Catholick is the established church. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced Christianity there about the year 1,000, and it was afterwards governed by an Hungarian vaivod, or viceroy. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania, as also of Sclavonia to the House of Austria, yet the natives enjoy what we call a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October 1784, on account of the real or feigned oppressions of the nobility, near 16,000 assembled and committed great depredations on those whose conduct had been resented. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to escape with their lives. The revolters were disappointed in their attempt on Clausenburg; and afterwards offered to separate and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vassalage. Little is known of the termination of this revolt, further than the account of several of the leaders having been taken and executed, and the application of some lenient measures, by which tranquillity was restored.

Sclavonia lies between the 16th and 23d degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and contains about 10,000 square miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the North, by the Danube on the East, by the Save on the South, and by Kiria in Austria on the West. The reason why Hungary, Transylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, subject to the House of Austria in those parts, contain a surprising variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is because liberty here made its last stand against the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into those quarters. The thickness of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the strength of the country,

favoured their resistance; and their descendants, notwithstanding the power of the Turks, the Austrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, still retain the spirit of independency. Without minding the arrangements made by the sovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them most at liberty. That they are generous as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the House of Austria, which till the last two wars, never was sensible of their value and valour; insomuch that it is well known, that they preserved the pragmatick sanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly gave so much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought the word *slave* took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, so late as the reign of Charlemagne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Transylvania, yet the ravages of war are still visible in the face of the country, which lies in a great measure unimproved. The Sclavonians are zealous Roman Catholicks, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two bishopricks; that of Posega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no universities. Essex is a large and strong town, remarkable, as before noticed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marshes five miles long, and fifteen paces broad, built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Austrians and Turks. The inhabitants are composed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vast number of other people, whose names were never known even to the Austrians themselves, but from the military and muster-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the two last wars. In 1746 Sclavonia was united to Hungary, and the states send representatives to the diet of Hungary.

Croatia lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth, and contains about 2,500 square miles. The manners, government, religion, language, and customs of the Croats, are similar to those of the Sclavonians and Transylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and as such are famed in modern history, under the name of Pandours, and various other designations. The truth is, the House of Austria finds its interest in suffering them, and the neighbouring nations, to live in their own manner. Their towns are blended with each other, there scarcely being any distinction of boundaries. Carolstadt is a place of some note; but Zagrab is the capital of Croatia. All the sovereignty exercised over them by the Austrians seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing them occasionally into the field. A viceroy presides over Croatia, jointly with Sclavonia, and

Hungarian Dalmatia: This lies in the upper part of the Adriatick sea, and consists of five districts, in which the most remarkable places are the two following: 1. Segna, which is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and by art, and is situated near the sea, in a bleak, mountainous and barren soil. The bishop of this place is a suffragan to the archbishop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches and two

convents. The governour resides in the old palace, called the Royal Castle. 2. Ottoschatz, a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortress where the governour and the greatest part of the garrison reside, is surrounded with a wall, and some towers: But the rest of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water; so that one neighbour cannot visit another without a boat.

Near Segna dwell the Uscocs, a people who being galled by oppression, escaped out of Dalmatia, from whence they obtained the name of Uscocs, from the word Scoco, which signifies a *deserter*. They are also called springers, or leapers, from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Some of them live in scattered houses, and others in large villages. They are a rough, savage people, large bodied, courageous, and given to rapine; but their visible employment is grazing. They use the Walachian language, and in their religious sentiments and mode of worship approach nearest to the Greek church; but some of them are Roman Catholicks.

A part of Walachia belongs also to the emperor, as well as to the Turks, which lies to the east of Transylvania, and its principal town are Tregonitz, Bucharest and Severin.

SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 600, Breadth 500 } between { 9° west and 3° east lon. / 36° and 44° north latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED on the west, by Portugal and the Atlantick Ocean; by the Mediterranean, on the east; by the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean Mountains, which separate it from France, on the north; and by the strait of the sea at Gibraltar, on the south. It is now divided into fourteen districts, besides islands in the Mediterranean; as in the following

TABLE.

DIVISIONS.	Areas in Square Miles.	Population.	TOWNS.	
	148,448 according to Lopez's map	10,500,000 according to Ct. Aranda.	Towns	139
			Villages & Boroughs	21,083
			according to others	18,000
				Inhabitants.
1. New Castile	28,000		Madrid	140,000
			Toledo	16,000
			Aranjuez	7,000
2. Old Castile	11,840		Burgos	10,000
			Segovia	9,5000

3. Leon	12,880		Leon	6,000
			Valladolid	19,000
			Salamanca	13,000
4. Granada	9,280	500,000	Granada	52,000
			Malaga	41,000
5. Andalusia, viz.	15,360		Seville (120,000)	80,000
Sevilla or Seville		325,000	Cadiz 1800 (80,000)	73,000
Cordova and Jaen			Cordova	20,000
			Jaen	27,000
			Antequera	19,000
6. Murcia	3,000		Murcia	44,000
			Carthagena	23,000
7. Valencia	7,850	716,000 Cavanilles	Valencia	80,000
			Alicante	15,000
8. Catalonia	9,280		Barcelona	115,000
			Tarragona	7,500
			Lerida	16,000
9. Arragonia or Arragon	11,360	471,000	Saragoca	36,000
			Huesca	6,800
10. Navarra or Navarre	2,880		Pampelona	11,000
			Tudela	
11. Biscaya Guipuzca & Alava	4,460		Bilboa	6,000
			St. Sebastian	8,000
12. Asturia	3,840		Oviedo	7,000
13. Gallicia	10,240		St. Jago Compestella	10,000
			Corunna	3,600
			Ferrol	7,500
14. Estremadura			Badayoz	6,000
			Merida	
15. Balearick Islands			Palma	23,000
Majorca	1,440		Mahon	
Minorca	742	27,801	Cindadella	2,500
Ivica		Murray	Ivica	

POSSESSIONS IN OTHER PARTS OF THE GLOBE.

1. In Africa. On the Coast of Barbary, the towns of Ceuta, Oran, Melilla, and Masalquivir : the Canary Islands, viz. Canaria, Ferro, Teneriffe, &c. The Islands of Annabon and Dalpo, under the equator.

2. In Asia. The Philippine Islands ; the principal of which is Luzon, whose capital is Manilla. The Marian, the Caroline, and Palaos Islands.

3. In America, immense provinces, much larger than all Europe, most of which are astonishingly fertile.

(1.) In North-America, California, Old-Mexico, or New-Spain, New-Mexico, both the Floridas.

(2.) In the West-Indies, the Islands of Cuba, Porto-Rico, Trinidad, Margaretta, Tortuga, &c.

(3.) In South-America, Terra-Firma, Peru, Chili, Tucuman, Paraguay, Patagonia.

These extensive countries are described in volume first of this work.

Ancient Names and Divisions.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Hesperia, as well as Hispania. About the time of the Punick wars, it was divided into Citerior and Ulterior; the Citerior contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largest part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the changes that it afterwards underwent; but there is no country of whose ancient history, at least the interior part of it, we know less than that of Spain.

Climate and Water.] Excepting the period of the equinoxial rains, the air of Spain is dry and serene, but excessively hot in the southern provinces in June, July, and August. The vast mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreshing breezes that come from them in the southernmost parts; though those towards the north and north-east are in the winter very cold.

The waters of Spain, especially those that are medicinal, are little known: but many salutiferous springs are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordova. All over Spain the waters are found to have such healing qualities, that they are outdone by those of no country in Europe; and the inclosing, and encouraging a resort to them, grow every day more and more in vogue, especially at Alhamar in Granada.

Mountains.] It is next to impossible to specify these, they are so numerous: The chief, and the highest, are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over these mountains there are only five narrow passages to France, and the road over the pass that separates Rousillon from Catalonia reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. It formerly required the strength of 30 men to support, and nearly as many oxen to drag up a carriage, which four horses now do with ease. The Cantabrian mountains are a continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantick Ocean, south of Cape Finisterre. The celebrated Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, was, in former times, known under the name of one of the pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lies opposite to it in Africa.

Among the mountains of Spain, Montserrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; one of the most singular in the world, for situation, shape and composition. It stands in a vast plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians Monte-serrado, or Mount Scie, words which signify a cut, or sawed mountain; and is so called from its singular and extraordinary form: For it is so broken and divided, and so crowned with an infinite number of spiring cones, or pine heads, that it has the appearance, at a distant view to be the work of man; but, upon a nearer approach, to be evidently a

natural production. It is a spot so admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whose first vow is, never to forsake it. When the mountain is first seen at a distance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, or like a pile of grotto work or Gothick spires. Upon a nearer view, each cone appears of itself a mountain; and the whole composes an enormous mass about 14 miles in circumference, and the Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in height.* As it is like no other mountain, so it stands quite unconnected with any, though not very distant from some that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to our lady of Monserrat, to which pilgrims resort from the farthest parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the sick received into the hospital. Sometimes, on particular festivals, seven thousand persons arrive in one day; but people of condition pay a reasonable price for what they eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels, ornaments for saying mass, water cisterns, and most of them little gardens. The inhabitant of one of these hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Benito, has the privilege of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, on which day all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the sacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar; and, after divine service, dine together. They meet also at this hermitage, on the days of the saints to which their several hermitages are dedicated, to say mass, and commune with each other. But at other times they live in a very solitary and recluse manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abstinence, nor do they ever eat flesh. They are not allowed to keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or any living thing, lest their attention should be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly objects. The number of professed monks there, is 76, of lay brothers 28, and of singing boys 25, besides a physician, surgeon, and servants. Mr. Thicknesse, who has published a very particular description of this extraordinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often saw from his habitation, the islands of Minorca, Majorca and Ivica, and the kingdoms of Valencia, and Murcia.

Rivers and Lakes.] These are the Duero, formerly Duerius, which falls into the Atlantick Ocean below Oporto in Portugal; the Tago, or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantick Ocean below Lisbon; the Guadiana falls into the same ocean near Cape Finisterre; as does the Guadalquiver, now Turio, at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean Sea below Tortosa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, rises in Sierra Morena, and empties itself into the Mediterranean, near Huelva, having the name of Tinto given it from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the sand, and petrifying it in a most surprising manner. If a stone happen to fall in, and

* Mr. Swinburne estimates its height at only 3,300 feet, and observes that the arms of the convent are, the Virgin Mary sitting at the foot of a rock, half cut through by a saw.

rest upon another, they both become, in a year's time, perfectly united. This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dies of the same hue as its waters. No kind of verdure will come where it reaches, nor any fish live in its stream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general no animals will drink of this river, except goats, whose flesh nevertheless has an excellent flavour. These singular properties continue till other rivulets run into it, and alter its nature: For when it passes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers, and falls into the Mediterranean sea six leagues lower down.

There are several lakes in Spain. That of Beneventa abounds with fishes, particularly with excellent trout. Of the water of a lake near Antiquera salt is made by the heat of the sun.

Bays.] The chief bays are those of Biscay, Ferrol, Corunna, (commonly called the Groyne) Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagena, Alicante, Altea, Valencia, Roses, Majorca in that island, and the harbour of Port-Mahon, in the island of Minorca. The strait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

Wealth and Commerce.] The kingdom of Spain might be one of the richest countries in Europe. It borders, like France, upon two seas; it is intersected by six large streams, and by upwards of fifty smaller rivers; it has very considerable mountains, and its climate is, in some respects still finer than that of France. With respect to its size, it is somewhat smaller than the latter; however, the advantages just enumerated, added to the immense extent and wealth of the Indies, ought to raise this monarchy high above all the other powers of Europe. And yet the reverse is the case; Spain is thinly peopled, has but little commerce, few manufactures, and what commerce it has is almost entirely in the hands of strangers, notwithstanding the impediments thrown in their way by government. With respect to the industry and fertility of the several provinces, Abbé Cavanilles distinguishes between the central and outward provinces; the latter viz. Gallicia, Asturia, Navarre, Arragon, Catalonia, Valencia, Murcia, Granada, and the south of Andalusia, are better watered and wooded, consequently less hot, and upon the whole much more fertile, than the middle provinces; most of them have, besides, the advantages of being maritime provinces. As a favourable instance of the fertility and industry of Spain, the same author has stated the produce of the province of Valencia, in the following manner:

	French Livres.
Silk, 2,000,000lb. valued at	30,000,000
Hemp	1,500,000
Flax	1,500,000
Wool, of the coarser sort, 23,000cwt.	920,000
Rice	5,180,000
Oil, 1,000,000cwt.	4,500,000
Wine, 3,000,000 cantaros	2,250,000
Dried raisins, 60,000cwt.	600,000
Figs	480,000
Dates	300,000
Total,	47,230,000

The articles of corn, oil, maize, almonds, soda, salt, and the fisheries of the same province, amounted, 1770, to 65,000,000 livres. The amount and variety of these productions is really astonishing; yet it must be owned, that this province is perhaps the richest in Spain. One of the greatest obstacles to agriculture in this kingdom is the breeding of large flocks of sheep, the value of which is estimated in Spain at 30,000,000 livres. They take up too great an extent of ground for their subsistence, to the prejudice of agriculture and population. The number of those sheep whose wool is of the finest sort is estimated at 5,000,000; the profits arising from them amount, annually, to 8,500,000 livres, of which 2,200,000 are paid to the king, 5,600,000 must be deducted from the necessary expenses, and only 700,000 livres are the clear benefit to the proprietors. Of this fine wool, 40,000cwt. is annually sent off to London and Bristol; about the same quantity to Rouen; 20,000cwt. to Amsterdam, of which only 6,000cwt. remains in Holland; the rest is exported chiefly to different parts of Germany. There are several large towns which carry on the wool trade, where wool is shipped for exportation; and those which produce the finest sorts of wool, are Leon, Segovia, (which alone produces 25,000cwt.) Avila, Burgos and Soria.

Agriculture flourishes most in the provinces of Castile and Estremadura; but, upon the whole, Spain does not produce corn enough for its consumption, and is under the necessity of importing large quantities.

Spain produces excellent fruit; as oranges, lemons, almonds, figs and grapes. In 1764, there were exported from the harbour of Malaga, 7000 chests of lemons and oranges, holding from 1,000 to 1,500 each; 1,000 barrels of figs, at 75—150lb. each; 400 barrels of almonds, of 275—300lb. each; 500 balls of orange and lemon peel; 15 balls of rosemary, the ball weighing 750lb. Pomegranates, dates, pistachios; (besides the kernel of this fruit, which resembles an almond in flavour, the leaves of it are used in Spain; they are boiled down to a resinous juice, which serves instead of frankincense.) Capers, chesnuts, of which 30,000 shiplasts are produced in the province of Asturia; filberts, 30,000 bags of which, sold at 1l. sterling each, are sent over to England. The sugar-cane, which at present is little cultivated, on account of the importation of West-India sugar: Only four sugar-mills are now remaining in the province of Granada. Soda, saffron, tobacco. The greatest tobacco manufactory is at Seville; it employs 1,000 workmen, and 180 mules, used to put 28 mills in motion. The building used for this purpose resembles a palace in magnificence, and the profits it yields amount to 6,000,000 of dollars: Every day 24,000lb. of tobacco are dried. Tobacco is mixed in this manufacture with a sort of red earth, called Almagra, (rubrica fabrilis) which is found near Carthagena, in the province of Murcia. Upwards of 1,000lb. of honey is exported; but the consumption of wax is so great, that a great deal must be imported from the West-Indies. Salt is very plentiful in Spain; there are not only many rich brine-springs, but large quantities of rock salt; and much salt is also extracted from the sea-water. Unhappily, the salt trade is a monopoly of the crown. Saltpetre abounds in this country; the soil is impreg-

nated with it, and many peasants have saltpetre pits; if properly attended to, considerable quantities for exportation might be produced. The wines of Spain are celebrated for their rich and delicious flavour, and they form very considerable articles of exportation.

Next to the province of Valencia, those of Arragon, Granada, and Murcia, are distinguished for the large quantities of silk they supply. The whole produce of silk, within these four provinces, was estimated, about 30 years ago, at about 1,500,000lb. annually. This produce has increased of late: In 1776, Granada and Murcia produced 700,000lb. and Valencia upwards of 1,000,000. In 1762, the silk raised in Valencia amounted to 1,150,000lb. in Murcia to 400,000, in Arragon to 170,000, in Granada to 100,000lb. Notwithstanding these vast quantities of silk, the silk manufactures are few and inconsiderable in proportion; scarcely the fourth part of those remain which were in a flourishing state in the 16th century. Of 700,000 looms, which Spain formerly had, Ustariz found only 10,000 remaining in the year 1724. Since that time, their number has again increased.

Cotton is likewise one of the many productions of this kingdom; Valencia, in good years, produces 120,500cwt. most of which is exported raw. The best cotton manufactures are in Valencia, Arragon and Catalonia.

Gold and silver was found in the mines in very considerable quantities during the times of the Roman dominion, and even afterwards by the industrious Moors. At present only a few silver mines are worked, among which, that at Guadalcornal, in the province of Estremedura, is the most important. It was formerly worked to very great advantage by German adventurers, but it is at present greatly on the decline: It is said to have produced, while in a flourishing state to the amount of 60,000 ducats a week. A few silver mines are found in the provinces of Granada, Arragon and Catalonia. Arragon produces a great deal of iron, most of which is exported as it is brought from the mines, and is imported again when manufactured abroad. This province produces likewise very large quantities of lead; the clear profits of one of these lead mines, at Binares, amounted to 3,000,000 dollars in seven years. Quicksilver is found in the rich mines of Guadalcornal and Almada. The first who worked them were Germans; the celebrated Fuger, so conspicuous for his wealth in Charles the Fifth's time, got most of his riches from the mine of Almada. In the middle of the 17th century, the produce of quicksilver, amounted to 18,000cwt. the whole of which is sent over to America for the purpose of amalgamating; and the sale of quicksilver to strangers is severely prohibited.

Spain is indebted to German mineralogists for the discovery of some rich mines of cobalt; the most important of them is that of Gistan, in Arragon. Besides metals, the mineral kingdom affords many valuable articles, among which the quarries of marble, alabaster and other useful stones, deserve to be mentioned.

Spain now first begins to think of facilitating trade, by the establishment of a bank, and by the improvement of the inland communication, by means of good roads and canals. A paper bank was estab-

lished in 1782, an East-India Company incorporated in 1785, and a large canal begun near Zaragoca in 1784.

All the exports of Spain, mostly articles which no other European country can supply, are estimated at only 80,000,000 livres, or 3,333,333l. sterling; a very inconsiderable amount, as will appear from the above specification of the excellent and various articles of production. The most important trade of Spain is that which it carries on with its American provinces. The chief imports from these extensive countries consist of gold, silver, precious stones, pearls, cotton, cocoa, cochineal, red wood, skins, rice, medicinal herbs and barks, as sassafras, Peruvian bark, &c. Vanilla, Vicunna wool, sugar, and tocacco. In 1784, the total amount of the value of Spanish goods exported to America, was 195,000,000 reales de vellon; foreign commodities, 238,000,000. r. d. v. The imports from America were valued at 900,000,000 reales de vellon, in gold, silver, and precious stones; and upwards of 300,000,000 in goods. In the *Gazeta de Madrid*, 1787, (Feb. 20th) it was stated, that the exports to America (the Indies) from the following twelve harbours, Cadiz, Corunna, Malaga, Seville, St. Lucar, Santander, Canaries, Alicant, Barcelona, Tortosa, Gibon, St. Sebastian, amounted, in 1785, to 767,249,787 reales de vellon; the duties paid on these exports amounted to 28,543,702 reales de vellon. The imports both in goods and money, from America and the West-India islands, amounted in the same year, to 1,266,071,067 reales de vellon, and the duties to 65,472,195 reales de vellon. The profits of the merchants from the American trade was valued at 5,000,000 dollars.

With respect to European commerce, the balance is generally against Spain, and those losses must be made up by the produce of its American Provinces. All the exports from Spain to Great-Britain amounted, in 1785, to 697,712l. sterling; the imports from Great-Britain, 788,064l. sterling. In 1784, the exports were 646,526, the imports 808,698l. sterling. [*Zimmermann.*]

Animal Productions by Sea and Land.] The Spanish horses, especially those of Andalusia, are thought to be the handsomest of any in Europe, and at the same time very fleet and serviceable. The king does all he can to monopolize the finest breed for his own stables and service. Spain furnishes likewise mules and black cattle; and their wild bulls have so much ferocity, that their bull feasts were the most magnificent spectacle the court of Spain could exhibit; nor are they now disused. Wolves are the chief beasts of prey that infest Spain, which is well stored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries already described. The Spanish seas afford excellent fish of all kinds especially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners Customs, Diversions and Dress.] "The population of this kingdom is computed at 11,000,000, or 74 to a square mile; while France yields 174, and England 169: nay the kingdom of Naples is computed at 201. This striking defect of population has deservedly excited attention; and a late intelligent traveller* has attempted to assign the reasons, among which may be num-

* Townsend.

bered the expulsion of the Jews after the conquest of Granada: that of the Moors by Philip III. the contagious fevers frequent in the southern provinces; in the incessant intestine wars for seven centuries carried on against the Moors; the emigrations to America; and the vast numbers of unmarried clergy and monks. Several other causes are enumerated, among which must not be forgotten the want of detached farms; the struggles with the Moors having instituted a rooted prejudice which induces the yeomanry to crowd in towns and villages, as if for mutual defence, instead of spreading over and enriching the whole face of the country."

The inhabitants of this kingdom have been computed by Feyjoo, a Spanish writer, to amount to 9,250,000; count Aranda makes them as stated in the Table.

A census was taken in the year 1787, and it appears that the number of souls then amounted to 10,268,150, viz.

Males,	5,109,172
Females,	5,158,978
	10,268,150

Part of this population is divided into the following classes, viz.

Males belonging to various religious orders and institutions	62,243
Females do.	33,630
Managers of the church property	13,274
Do. of subordinate church affairs	10,744
Gentry	480,589
Advocates or lawyers	5,917
Scriveners, notaries and clerks	9,611
Scholars	50,994
Husbandmen	907,197
Day labourers	964,571
Merchants and traders	34,339
Manufacturers	39,750
Handicraft-men or mechanicks	270,989
Servants	280,092
Persons in the pay of the king	36,465
Persons with military privileges	77,884
Dependants on the inquisition	2,705
Stewarts or agents of religious orders	4,127
Religious dependants on alms	1,844
Paupers craving charity	7,030
Male students in colleges	6,430
Female do.	1,298
Poor in hospitals, employed	5,573
Infirm or disabled men in hospitals	7,699
Infirm or disabled women in do.	3,283
Lunaticks (men)	359
Do. (women)	336
Persons keeping religious houses to entertain their brethren travelling	616

Men in do.	3,831
Women in do.	4,937
Boys in do.	1,926
Girls in do.	1,753
Persons employed in keeping the prisons	124
Male prisoners	1,205
Female do.	650
Persons employed in keeping the Foundling hospitals	173
Male children in these hospitals	3,530
Female do. in do.	2,811

The whole population consists of

Unmarried males	2,926,229
Unmarried females	2,753,224
Married men*	1,947,165
Married women*	1,943,496
Widowers	253,778
Widows	562,258

There are in Spain,

Parishes	11,972
Religious houses for men	2,067
Do. for women	2,122
Colleges	213
Hospitals	773
Prisons	26
Foundling hospitals	51
Cities	145
Towns	4,572
Villages	13,790
Deserted places	1,511

The population of 1787, exceeded that of 1768 and 1769 by 960,346 souls.

The persons of the Spaniards are generally tall, especially the Castilians; their hair and complexion swarthy, but their countenances are very expressive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of mustachoes, and to introduce among them the French dress, instead of their black cloaks, their short jerkin, straight breeches, and long Toledo swords, which dress is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the accession of the House of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dress in hatred and contempt of the French. An old Castilian, or Spaniard, who sees none above him, thinks himself the most important being in nature; and the same pride is commonly communicated to his descendants.

Ridiculous, however as this pride is, it is productive of the most valuable effects. It inspires the nation with generous, humane and virtuous sentiments; it being seldom found that a Spanish nobleman,

* The causes of the difference between the number of married men and women are not assigned.

gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the most embittered wars they have had with England for near 70 years past, there is no instance known of their taking advantage (as they might easily have done) of confiscating the British property on board their galleons and Plate fleet, which was equally secure in time of war as in peace.

By the best and most credible accounts of the late wars, it appears that the Spaniards, in America, gave the most humane and noble relief to all British subjects who were in distress, and fell into their hands, not only by supplying them with necessaries, but money ; and treating them in the most hospitable manner while they remained among them.

Having said thus much, we are carefully to distinguish between the Spanish nobility, gentry, and traders, and their government, which is to be put on the same footing with the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as those of any other country. The kings of Spain, of the House of Bourbon, have seldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families, as their ministers. These are generally French or Italians ; but most commonly the latter, who rise into power by the most infamous arts, and of late times, from the most abject stations. Hence it is that the French kings of Spain, since their accession to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently served in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greatest genius among them, embroiled his master with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace ; and Grimaldi, the last of their Italian ministers, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppressive and unpopular measures.

The common people who live on the coasts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an assemblage of Jews, French, Russian, Irish adventurers, and English smugglers ; who, being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards. In time of war, they follow privateering with great success ; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Irish and Walloon guards in the Spanish service. There are about 40,000 gypsies, and who, besides their fortune-telling, are inn-keepers in the small towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne, after his late travels through the country : " The Catalans appear to be the most active stirring set of men, the best calculated for business, travelling and manufactures. The Valencians a more sullen, sedate race, better adapted to the occupations of husbandmen, less eager to change place, and of a much more timid, suspicious cast of mind than the former. The Andalusians seem to be the greatest talkers and rhodomontadoes of Spain. The Castilians have a manly frankness, and less appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Castilians are perhaps the least industrious of the whole nation. The Old Castilians are laborious, and retain more of ancient simplicity of manner : Both are of a firm determined spirit. The Arragonese are a mixture of the Castilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biscayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more resembling a colony of republicans than a province of an absolute monar-

chy; and the Gallicians are a plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in search of a hardly earned subsistence."

Notwithstanding the pride and ostentation of the Spaniards, their penury is easily discernible, but their wants are few, and their appetites easily satisfied. The inferior orders, even in the greatest cities, are miserably lodged, and those lodgings wretchedly furnished. Many of the poorer sort, both men and women, wear neither shoes nor stockings; and coarse bread steeped in oil, and occasionally seasoned with vinegar, is the common food of the country people through several provinces. A traveller in Spain must carry provisions and bedding with him, and if he happen to meet with the appearance of an inn, he must even cook his victuals, it being beneath the dignity of a Spaniard to perform these offices to strangers; but lately some tolerable inns have been opened by Irishmen and Frenchmen in cities, and upon the high roads. The pride, indolence, and laziness of the Spaniards, are powerful inducements to their more industrious neighbours, the French, who are to be found in all parts of the kingdom; and here a wonderful contrast distinguishes the character of two neighbouring nations. The Spaniard seldom stirs from home, or puts his hand to work of any kind. He sleeps, goes to mass, takes his evening walk: While the industrious Frenchman becomes a thorough domestick; he is butcher, cook and tailor, all in the same family; he powders the hair, cuts the corns, wipes the shoes, and after making himself useful in a thousand different shapes, he returns to his native country loaded with dollars, and laughs out the remainder of his days at the expense of his proud benefactor.

The Spaniards are universally known to have refined notions and excellent sense; and this, if improved by study and travelling, would render them superior to the French. Their slow, deliberate manner of proceeding, either in council or war, has of late years worn off to such a degree, that during the two last wars, they were found to be as quick both in resolving and executing, if not more so, than their enemies. Their secrecy, constancy and patience, have always been deemed exemplary; and in several of their provinces, particularly Gallicia, Granada and Andalusia, the common people have, for some time, assiduously applied themselves to agriculture and labour.

Among the many good qualities possessed by the Spaniards, their sobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfast, as well as sup in bed; their breakfast is usually chocolate, tea being very seldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlick, chives, sallad and radishes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women use water or chocolate. Both sexes usually sleep after dinner and take the air in the cool of the evenings. Dancing is so much their favourite entertainment, that you may see a grandmother, mother and daughter, all in the same country-dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are insipid and ridiculous bombast. The prompter's head sometimes appears through a trap-door above the level of the stage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling passion in Spain.

jealousy, since the accession of the House of Bourbon, has slept in peace. The nightly musical serenades of mistresses by their lovers are still in use. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-feasts, are almost peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of shewing their courage and activity before their mistresses; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured and rewarded, according to the number and fierceness of the bulls he has killed in these encounters. Great pains are used in settling the forms and weapons of the combat, so as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diversion itself, which is attended with circumstances of great barbarity, is undoubtedly of Moorish original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaisance, and partly through rivalship.

There is not a town in Spain but what has a large square for the purpose of erecting bull-fights; and it is said that even the poorest inhabitants of the smallest villages, will often club together, in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them riding upon asses, for want of horses. [*Guthrie.*]

Government.] Spain is an absolute monarchy. The meeting of the deputies of the town, whenever a new tax is to be imposed, is a mere matter of form. Some provinces however, as Navarre, Biscay and Arragon, have preserved some of their ancient immunities. The kings edicts, before they acquire the force of laws, must be registered in the court of Castile. The crown is hereditary, both in the male and female line. By a law made in 1715, female heirs cannot succeed till after the whole male line is extinct.

Publick business is managed by the following departments: The Council of State, or the Cabinet; of the ministers belonging to it, the secretary of state for foreign affairs is considered as the first. The Supreme Royal Court, or chamber of Castile, occupied with the internal administration. It is likewise the Supreme Court of justice in the kingdom, and is divided into four chambers: The Council of war, the Royal Council of the Indies, and the Council of Finances. There are 12 tribunals in the different provinces of Spain, called Chancillerias, Consejois, or Audiencias. In the smaller towns, the judges of the inferior courts of justice are called Alcaides or Bayles; in the large cities, Carregidores, and their assessors Regidors. Lawsuits in this country are exceedingly expensive, and of long duration.

The civil, criminal and police laws, are partly derived from the ancient Gothick laws, and partly contained in the edicts of the kings. In cases where these laws are deficient, the Roman laws are made use of. In ecclesiastical matters, the canon or papal law in its full extent, is adopted as the rule of right.

Fundamental laws of the monarchy are the following: 1. The indivisibility of the Spanish dominions. 2. The right of primogeniture, which put an end to the custom of dividing the kingdom between the sons of the king. And, 3. The above mentioned clause concerning the succession of the female line.

The provinces are governed by viceroys, (Virreyes); and all the American dominions of Spain are divided into three royal governments, under the viceroys of New-Granada, Mexico and Peru. There are nine superior courts of justice, or Audiencias, in America, and one in the Philipine Islands.

Finances.] The king's revenue from old Spain amounts to 5,600,000l. sterling. The whole of the revenue from Spain, America, and the Philippine Islands, is said to amount to 100 millions of piasters.

The publick revenue is divided into the general and provincial revenue. The first arises, 1. From the customs and the duties on imported goods from abroad, as well as those imported from one province into another. 2. From the monopolies of the crown, viz. those of tobacco, salt, lead, quicksilver and gun-powder. 3. From stamp duties, contributions, a tax on landed estates, taxes levied on the estates of the clergy, from the sale of papal absolutions and indulgences, reduced to the price of 40 sous each, from the posts, deductions from the salaries of publick officers, and the mint. 4. The crown revenue from America. 5. The crown revenue from Arragon, Valencia, Catalonia, Majorca and Minorca. What is called the provincial revenue arises from the 22 provinces, into which the kingdom of Castile has been divided; it consists of various tithes, and duties on soap, brandy, wine, and other articles. Part of the provincial contributions are assigned over to the creditors of the crown, in lieu of interest on their capitals. Many branches of the revenue are farmed out to companies. The farm of tobacco alone employs no less than 53,000 collectors. Before the year 1770, the publick expenditure was nearly equal to the revenue, but has been found since to exceed it. In the year 1770, a deficiency of five millions of piasters was made good by withholding the sums destined for the extraordinary expense of the colonies. "The national debt of Spain is a mere trifle." [*Pinkerton.*]

Army.] The army of Spain in 1783, amounted to between 60 and 70,000 men; besides 20,000 militia. According to others, the regular troops did not then actually exceed 50,000 men; and more recent accounts reduce the army to only 20,000 effective men. The army establishment, as published in the year 1776, amounted to only 132,730 men on the list, viz.

Royal guards	9,900
Forty-six regiments of foot	61,425
Artillery	3,355
Engineers,	150
Horse and dragoons	13,200
Militia	29,700
Invalids and militia of the town	15,000
Total,	132,730

This number, if actually raised in time of war, would be very moderate, considering the great extent of the kingdom. There are military schools at Segovia, Barcelona and Oran, chiefly for artillery. A

tactick school is established at Avilla. There are, on the French frontiers, 15 strong fortresses, and as many on the frontiers of Portugal. But the armies of Spain, instead of carrying terror through the bravest countries of Europe, as they did two centuries ago, cease to be formidable to any considerable power.

Navy.] In 1778, Spain had ships of war of all sorts 144. Other accounts say only 126. In 1784, these were said to be 62 ships of the line, from 120 to 64 guns. The naval troops consisted, in 1783, of three companies of guardias marinas, and 12 battalions of marines, both together, 5712 men, a naval artillery corps of 20,000 men; a corps of naval engineers, a corps of pilots. In Feb. 1801, Spain had 19 ships of the line at Brest, 13 of which were 74s, 1 of 80, 2 of 112, 3 of 116.

All naval affairs are managed by a board, divided into three departments, those of Cadiz, Carthagena and Ferrol, which are the chief harbours of the navy. The whole is under the administration of a secretary of the marine; and each department has its naval academy.

Religion.] The Roman Catholick religion is the exclusive religion of the Spanish monarchy; and it was in these countries, till lately, of the most bigoted, superstitious and tyrannical characters. All other denominations of Christians, as well as the Jews, were exposed to all the severities of persecution; and the least deviation from what is called the orthodox faith, was liable to be punished with loss of liberty and even of life. The power of the court of inquisition, established in Spain in 1478, has, however, been considerably diminished in some respects by the interference of the civil power. Besides the Supreme Court of Inquisition at Madrid, there were 18 inferior tribunals in the several provinces of the monarchy, which employed a numerous host of spies or familiars, amounting to about 20,000 persons, who, on the slightest suspicion of heresy, denounced persons of every condition, sex and age. The proceedings of this arbitrary court were unlike those of all other courts of justice, in that they deviate from every law of equity and humanity; they did not even inform the accused party of the crime laid to his charge, nor confront him with his accuser, but endeavour to extort by imprisonment, and by still harsher methods, a confession of heretical opinions.

The publick worship is loaded with ceremonies, calculated to support the blind zeal of the people for their religion, and the reverence for their spiritual tyrants. The whole of the canon law is here in force, and the power of the pope is still very extensive. It is supposed that the ecclesiasticks of this kingdom amount to 200,000 persons, half of whom are monks and nuns, distributed through 3,000 convents. The possessions of the clergy are very large; the revenue of the archbishop of Toledo amounts to 100,000l. sterling, per annum. There are in the kingdom of Spain eight archbishops and 46 bishops; in America six archbishops and 23 bishops; in the Philippine Islands, one archbishop and three bishops. All these dignities are in the gift of the king. Fifty-two inferior ecclesiastical dignities and offices are in the gift of the pope.

To the Spanish clergy there belong three spiritual orders of knighthood: The orders of Santiago, Calatrava and Alcantara, possessed of very large estates. The morals of the people are deplorable; they unite theoretick piety with the practice of every vice.

Antiquities and Curiosities, artificial and natural.] The former of these consist chiefly of Roman and Moorish antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is supported by a double row of 152 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat stones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church, said to be one of the greatest curiosities of antiquity. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is supported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aisles, in which are 366 altars and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the most noble and costly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built in 1768, out of the ruins of a decayed one that had existed 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, said to have been raised by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almost entire, well proportioned and simple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn stone. Near Murviedro, (once the faithful Saguntum) destroyed by Hannibal, are some Roman remains—as the ruins of the theatre, an exact semicircle about 82 yards in diameter; some of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9,000 persons might attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Moorish antiquties are rich and magnificent. Among the most distinguished of these is the royal palace of the Alhambra at Granada, which is one of the most entire, as well as the most stately, of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was built in 1280, by the second Moorish king of Granada; and, in 1422, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is situated on a hill, which is ascended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1568, which was never finished, though the shell of it remains. It is built of yellow stone; the outside forms a square of one hundred and ninety feet. The inside is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuscan, and a gallery of the Dorick order, each supported by thirty-two columns, made of as many single pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jasper, on the pedestals of which are representations of battles, in marble basso relievo. The Alhambra itself is a mass of many houses and towers, walled around, and built of large stones of different dimensions. Almost all the rooms have stucco walls and ceilings, some carved, some painted, and some gilt, and covered with various Arabick sentences. It is the most curious place within, that perhaps exists in Europe. Here are

several baths, the walls, floor, and ceiling of which are of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another palace called Ginaraliph, situated on a more elevated station than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the finest prospects in Europe, over the whole fertile plain of Granada, bounded by the snowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loss of Granada, and still offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Moorish times, remain in Spain ; some of them in tolerable preservation, and others exhibiting superb ruins.

Among the natural curiosities, the medicinal springs, and some noisy lakes, form a principal part ; but we must not forget the River Guadiana, which, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then is said to emerge. The royal cabinet of natural history at Madrid, was opened to the publick by his majesty's order in 1775. Every thing in this collection is arranged with neatness and elegance ; and the apartments are opened twice a week for the publick, besides being shewn privately to strangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious stones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect ; but the collection of birds and beasts at present is not large, though it may be expected to improve apace, if care be taken to get the productions of the Spanish American colonies. Here is also a curious collection of vases, basons, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces of the finest agates, amethysts, rock crystals, &c. mounted in gold, and enamel, set with cameos, intaglois, &c. in an elegant taste, and of very fine workmanship, said to have been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet also contains specimens of Mexican and Peruvian vases and utensils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the stone. On the west side of the mountain is the cave, called St. Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars of various sizes, some of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of stalactitæ, of a whitish colour, composed of several coats or crusts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increase in bulk, and may probably in time fill the whole cavern. From the summit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be seen, but the bay, the straits, the towns of St. Roque and Algesiras, and the Alpuzara mountains, mount Abyla on the African shore, with its snowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coast.

Chief Cities.] *Madrid* is the capital of Spain. It is surrounded with very lofty mountains, whose summits are frequently covered with snow. It is well paved and lighted, and some of the streets are spacious and handsome. The houses of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for shew, conveniency being little considered : Thus you will pass through usually two or three large apartments of no use, in order to come at a small room at the end where the family sit. The houses, in general, look more like prisons than the habita-

tions of people at their liberty; the windows, besides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and sometimes all the rest. Separate families generally inhabit the same house, as in Paris and Edinburgh. In the city are 7,398 houses, 32,745 families, 147,543 souls. Foreigners are very much distressed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking strangers into their houses, especially if they are not Catholicks. Its greatest excellency is the cheapness of its provisions; but neither tavern, coffee-house, nor newspaper, except the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The royal palace stands on an eminence, on the west side of the city; it is a spacious, magnificent structure, consisting of three courts, and commands a very fine prospect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet in length, 100 high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence; the great audience chamber especially, which is 120 feet long, and hung with crimson velvet, richly embroidered with gold; ornamented also with 12 looking-glasses, made at St. Ildefonso, each 10 feet high, with 12 tables of the finest Spanish marble. The other royal palaces around it are designed for hunting-seats or houses of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good statues. The chief of those palaces are the Buen Retiro (now stripped of all its best pictures and furniture) Cassa, del Campo, Aranjuez and St. Ildefonso.

A late traveller has represented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely delightful. Here is also a park many leagues round, cut across in different parts by alleys of two, three, and even four miles in extent. Each of these alleys is formed by two double rows of elm trees; one double row on the right hand and one on the left, which renders the shade thicker. The alleys are wide enough to admit of four coaches abreast, and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a stream of water. Between these alleys there are thick groves of smaller trees of various kinds, and thousands of deer and wild boars wander there at large, besides numberless hares, rabbits, pheasants, partridges, and several other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly surrounded by the garden, and is exceedingly pleasant, adorned with fountains and statues, and it also contains a vast variety of the most beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itself, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonso is built of brick, plastered and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two stories high, and the garden-front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms in a suit. The gardens are on a slope, on the top of which is a great reservoir of water, called here, *El Mar*, the sea, which supplies the fountains:—This reservoir is furnished from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The water-works are excellent, and far surpass those at Versailles. The great entry of the palace, is somewhat similar to that of Versailles, and with a large iron pallisade. In the gardens are twenty-seven fountains; the basons are of white marble, and the statues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed

and gilt. These gardens are in the formal French style, but ornamented with sixty-one very fine marble statues, as large as the life, with twenty-eight marble vases, and twenty leaden vases gilt. The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique statues, busts and basso relievos.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Escurial; and the natives say, perhaps with justice, that the building of it cost more than that of any other palace in Europe. The description of this palace forms a sizeable quarto volume, and it is said that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it six millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number of windows, 200 in the west front, and in the east 366, and the apartments are decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings, sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold and silver, marble, jasper, gems and other curious stones, surpassing all imagination. The Spaniards say, that this building, besides its palace, contains a church, large and richly ornamented, a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thousand volumes, besides large apartments for all kinds of artists and mechanicks, noble walks, with extensive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and costly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are two hundred, and they have an annual revenue of 12,000l. The mausoleum or burying place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, because it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's. It is 36 feet in diameter, incrusted with fine marbles.

But this fabrick, notwithstanding the incredible sums bestowed on it, discovers, upon the whole, a bad taste. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, because St. Lawrence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on such a utensil, and multiplying the same figure through its principal ornaments, could have been formed only in the brain of a tasteless bigot, such as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French at St. Quintin, on St. Lawrence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king resides, forms the handle of the gridiron. The building is a long square of 640 feet by 580. The height to the roof is sixty feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his successors; but its outside has a gloomy appearance, and the inside is composed of different structures, some of which are master-pieces of architecture, but forming a disagreeable whole. It must however be confessed, that the pictures and statues that have found admission here, are excellent in their kind, and some of them not to be equalled even in Italy itself.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spanish commerce. It stands on an island separated from the continent of Andalusia, without the straits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the sea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts called the Puntals. The streets are narrow, ill paved and filthy, and full of rats in the night. The houses lofty, with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the sea. The cathedral hath been already fifty years building, and the roof a few years since, was not half finished. The environs are beautifully rural. This city was

visited, in the autumn of 1800, with the yellow fever. In the course of ten weeks, it was estimated that 10 thousand died of this disease. Of 73 thousand, the whole population of the city, 53 thousand removed to the adjacent towns for safety. Out of every 600 deaths, according to the calculations, there were only 26 females. The convents suffered severely. In one, which contained 150 residents, 100 died. Here is an hospital, which will contain 6000 patients, and a work-house, which employs more than 800 poor of all ages.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is, next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The shape is circular, and the walls seem of Moorish construction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The suburb of Triana, is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothick castle, where, in 1481, the inquisition was first established in Spain. Manufactures in wool and silk, which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400, and its great office of commerce to Spanish America, is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothick building, with a curious steeple or tower, having a moveable figure of a woman at top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and which is referred to in Don Quixote.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, said to be founded by Hamilcar Barcas, is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 houses, is situated on the Mediterranean, facing Minorca, and is said to be the handsomest place in Spain; the houses are lofty and plain, and the streets well lighted and paved. The citadel is strong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the siege they sustained in 1714 against a formidable army, when deserted both by England and the Emperor, for whom they had taken up arms.

A singular custom prevails among them on the 1st of November, the eve of All Souls; they run about from house to house to eat chesnuts, believing that for every chesnut they swallow, with proper faith and unction, they shall deliver a soul out of purgatory. The work-house contains 1400 poor. During peace 1000 vessels enter this port every year.

Carthagena is a large city, but has few good streets, and fewer remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arsenal is a spacious square southwest of the town, with forty pieces of cannon to defend it toward the sea. When Mr. Swinburne visited it, in 1775, there were 800 Spanish criminals, and 600 Barbary slaves working at the pumps to keep the docks dry, &c. and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes, for which the Spaniards were sent there, deserved indeed exemplary punishments.

Granada stands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double summit between two rivers, the Dauro, and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are passed away with its old inhabitants; the streets are now filthy, the aqueducts crumbled to dust, and its trade is lost. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned useful; the surplus is made up of superfluous clergy, lawyers, children and beggars. Pinkerton says the population is 80,000. The amphitheatre, for bull-feasts, is built of stone, and one of the best in Spain; and the environs of the city are still pleasing and healthful.

Bilboa is situated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the sea. It contains about eight hundred houses, with a large square by the water side, well shaded with pleasant walks which extend to the outlets, on the banks of the river; where there are great numbers of houses and gardens, which form a most pleasing prospect, particularly in sailing up the river; for, besides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landscape, and completes the scenery. The houses are solid and lofty, and the streets well paved and level; and the water is so conveyed into the streets, that they may be washed at pleasure; which renders Bilboa one of the neatest towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not less remarkable for its opulence and extensive commerce, than for the luxuriance of its soil, yielding in great abundance the most delicious fruits; whilst its rugged mountains afford those luscious grapes, which give such reputation to the Malaga wine, known by the name of Mountain, and also the Tent, of a deep red. The city is large and populous, containing before the depopulation by the fever in 1804, 40,000 inhabitants; it is of a circular form, surrounded with a double wall, strengthened by stately towers, and has nine gates. A Moorish castle on the point of a rock, commands every part of it. The streets are narrow, and the most remarkable building in it is a stupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II. said to be as large as that of St. Paul's in London. The bishop's income is 16,000l. sterling.

Salamanca (city) is of a circular form, built on three hills and two vallies, and on every side surrounded with prospects of fine houses, noble seats, gardens, orchards, fields and distant villages; and is ancient, large, rich and populous. Over some of the arches of their houses are medallions, with busts of the kings of Spain, and of several eminent men, in stone basso-relievo, among which are those of Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila and Cid Ruy. In this square the bull fights are exhibited for three days only in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of 25 arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Toledo is one of the most ancient cities in Spain, and during several centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees stripped it of its numerous inhabitants. From 200,000 the population is reduced to 25,000. It is now very badly built, poor and mean, and the streets very steep.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Castile, but now in obscurity.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortress of Andalusia, on the west side of a mountain called Calpe by the ancients, is at present in the possession of Great-Britain. It was taken from the Spaniards in 1704; and after many fruitless attempts to recover it, was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713. Repeated attempts have been since made to wrest it from England, but without success: The last siege was during the American war. The place is by nature deemed impregnable. Near three hundred pieces of cannon of different bores, and chiefly brass, which were sunk before the port in the

floating batteries, have been raised, and sold, to be distributed among the garrison. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding the passage of the Straits, or the entrance into the Mediterranean. But the road is not safe against an enemy or storms: The bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The Straits are 24 miles long, and 15 broad; through which sets a current from the Atlantick ocean into the Mediterranean, and for the stemming of it a brisk gale is required. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the last siege was totally destroyed by the enemy's bombs; but on account of its fortifications, is esteemed the key of Spain, and is always furnished with a garrison well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is accessible on the land side only by a narrow passage between the rock and the sea, but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and so inclosed by high steep hills, as to be almost inaccessible that way. It has but two gates on that side, and as many towards the sea. Across this isthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garrison of Gibraltar from having any intercourse with the country behind them: Notwithstanding which, they carry on a clandestine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garrison is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces scarcely any thing, all their provisions are brought them either from England, or from Ceuta, on the opposite coast of Barbary. Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but that power producing those abuses which are naturally attendant on it, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magistrates. The inhabitants are about 5,000, and the garrison is generally about the same number. Its population was diminished in 1804, by a mortal fever.

Pampelona has a population of 5,000; *Saragossa*, the chief town of Arragon, is the ancient Cæsarea Augusta; in the university are 2,000 students.

Badajos has 80,000 inhabitants, and *Murcia* the same number. [*Pinkerton.*]

Islands.] The chief islands belonging to Spain in Europe, are those of Majorca, Yvica and Minorca, which has often changed masters, and contains about 23,000 inhabitants.

Literature.] The literature of Spain is respectable, though little known in other countries since the decline of the Spanish power. Concerning their means of common education little is known; but it is in the hands of monks, therefore, nothing very excellent can be expected. Their universities are upwards of twenty; the most noted is at Salamanca. The students, in 1785, were 1,909; formerly they were 16,000. The same systems of philosophy, logick and divinity are now studied there, as in the dark ages; so that a scholar now may be as great a dunce as in the thirteenth century. [*Pinkerton.*]

General Remarks.] Whoever considers the climate, the fertility and the immense extent of the dominions belonging to the crown of Spain, must be grieved to find the accumulated natural treasures of

so great a part of the globe, turn out to so little advantage to the human species. A comparison of this kingdom with France or England shews its inferiority in a very striking light. It seems, that the want of vigour and happiness of the Spanish monarchy, is to be attributed chiefly to three causes: 1. To the depopulation of Old Spain, occasioned by the injudicious and cruel expulsion of the industrious Moors. 2. To the religious oppression still prevailing in Spain, and discouraging foreigners from settling in that kingdom. 3. To the discovery of so very rich a country as America, and to the sudden influx of too much gold and silver from thence. It appears from several calculations, that some thousand millions of ducats have been brought over to Spain since the discovery of America. These riches being acquired without any other trouble than that of plundering and oppressing the natives, proved extremely prejudicial to the mother country, by inducing great numbers of inhabitants to emigrate from Old Spain, in order to exchange labour and industry for rapine; and by rendering the ancient sources of wealth, agriculture and manufactures, contemptible, when compared to the riches to be acquired in America. In consequence of this revolution, the useful arts, rendered perhaps more difficult in this kingdom by the influence of the climate, sunk into neglect and insignificancy, from which they have not yet emerged. It is to be hoped, however, that this fatal consequence of too rapid an influx of money, especially if the latter should not be permanent in its nature, will in future be guarded against by other commercial nations, to whom the present state of Spain may serve as a useful warning.

While the Moors were masters of Spain, agriculture and the useful arts were in a very flourishing state, and sciences were arrived to a degree of lustre the more conspicuous, by being contrasted with the ignorance spread over the rest of Europe.

Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Isidore, bishop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewise produced some excellent physicians. Such was the gloom of the Austrian government, that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, born at Alcala, in 1549, enlisted in a station little superior to that of a common soldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he lost his left hand. His satire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much service to his country by curing them of that ridiculous spirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He was in prison for debt, when he composed the first part of his history. Perhaps he is to be placed at the head of moral and humorous satirists.

Tostatus, a divine, the most voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his works have been long distinguished only by their bulk. Herrera, and some other historians, particularly De Solis, have shewn great abilities in history, by investigating the antiquities of America, and writing the history of its conquest by their countrymen. Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Feyjoo has been one of the most distinguished. His performances display great ingenuity, very extensive reading, and uncommon

liberality of sentiment; especially when his situation and country are considered. Many of his pieces have been translated into English, and published in four volumes. Don Francisco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, and author of a dissertation on the Phenician language, may be placed in the first line of the Spanish literati. Spain has likewise produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amusing and instructive.

Some of the Spaniards have distinguished themselves in the polite arts, and not only the cities, but the palaces, especially the Escurial, discover many striking specimens of their abilities as sculptors and architects. Palomina, in an elaborate treatise on the art of painting, in two volumes folio, has inserted the lives of two hundred and thirty-three painters and sculptors, who flourished in Spain from the time of Ferdinand the Catholick, to the conclusion of the reign of Philip the Fourth. Among the most eminent Spanish painters, were Velasques Nurillo, who is commonly called the Spanish Vandyke, Ribeira, and Claudio Coello, whose style of painting was very similar to that of Paul Veronese.

The present state of sciences in Spain is far from being flourishing. There are, it is true, nearly thirty universities in the Spanish dominions; among which, those of Madrid, Salamanca, Seville, Valladolid, Zaragoca and Toledo, are the most celebrated: but Aristotelick and scholastick philosophy, subservient to the absurd doctrines of a superstitious church, is still prevailing in these seminaries, with very little change ever since the restoration of ancient learning. While sciences are exclusively taught by monks and priests; while the productions of genius are subject to the rigorous censure of an inquisition, which is by its nature an enemy to free discussion, and to the prevalence of reason, it is not to be expected that philosophy will make any progress under the terrors of prisons and *autes da fé*. Yet poetry and the arts have made a considerable figure in Spain. There are several societies at Madrid, Valencia, Barcelona and Valladolid, intended for the improvement of the Castilian language, the study of the canon law, and the liturgy; of history, the Latin language, medicine, the arts of design and geography. Arts, industry and science, have lately revived in Spain: But it may be found difficult to encourage their progress, without a subversion of the ancient constitution.

Spain early made a part of the combination against France: But after a war of several years, in which she lost a considerable part of her dominions, and 60 thousand lives, and expended, it is said, 200 million piasters,* she concluded a peace at Basle, July 22, 1795, in which the French Republick restored to the king of Spain all the conquests she had made in his dominions during the war; and the king of Spain ceded to the French Republick the Spanish part of St. Domingo. A treaty of alliance has since been formed between the French Republick and Spain, which has involved the latter in the naval wars of the former.

History.] The first inhabitants of Spain were the Celtæ, a people of Gaul; after them the Phœnicians possessed themselves of the most

* A piaster is a crown English.

southern parts of the country, and may well be supposed to have been the first civilizers of this kingdom, and the founders of the most ancient cities. After these followed the Grecians; then the Carthagenians, on whose departure, sixteen years before Christ, it became subject to the Romans, till the year 400, when the Goths, Vandals, Suevi, Alans and Sillingi, on Constantine's withdrawing his forces from that kingdom to the east, invaded it and divided it among themselves; but the Goths in a little time were sole masters of it under their king Alarick I. who founded the Spanish monarchy. After a regular succession of monarchs, we come to the present king, Charles IV. who ascended the throne December 13, 1788, upon the death of his father Charles III.

PORTUGAL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 300 } between { 37° and 42° north latitude.
Breadth 105 } { 7° and 10° west longitude.

Or 360 miles in length by 120 in breadth. [*Pinkerton.*]
It contains 27,280 square miles, with a population of 67 to a mile.

Boundaries.] IT is bounded by Spain on the north and east; and on the south and west, by the Atlantick Ocean, being the most westerly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

Name.] This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called *Lusitania.* The name *Portugal*, is derived from a city built by a people called *Cale*, and by them named *Portucale* or *Portugal*, (now *Oporto.*) About the year 1057, this name was given to the whole kingdom.

Divisions.] Portugal is divided into six Provinces, viz.

Provinces.	Leagues. Length.	Breadth.	Population.	Chief Towns.	Inhabi.
1. Entre Douro e-Minho	18	12	900,000	Oporto	40,000
				Braga	12,000
2. Tras-os-Montes	34	26	140,000	Miranda	
				Braganca	2,700
3. Beira	36	34	520,000	Coimbra	12,000
				Aveiro	4,400
4. Estremadura	40	18	635,000	LISBON	120,000
				others,	180,000
5. Alentejo	39	35	300,000	Evora	10,000
				Villa Viciosa	3,700
				Estremoz	6,500
6. Algarve	28	8	93,470	Lagoz	2,800
				Tavira	4,700

	Population.	Chief Towns.	Inhabi.
Islands in the Atlantick Ocean belonging to Portugal, viz.	130,000		
Isle Porto Santo,	1,200	Porto Santo	600
Madeira	65,000	Funchal	
The Azores			
St. Miguel	52,900	Ponta Delgada	
Terceira		Angru	
Fayal		Horto	
Pico		Villa das Lagens	
Flores		St. Cruz	
Corvo			

Each of the provinces of Portugal, for the better administration of justice, is divided into districts, called *Comarcas*, of which there are 36 in the whole kingdom. Each *comarca* has under its jurisdiction a certain number of towns and villages, which are governed by their respective magistrates, subordinate to the chief magistrates of the *comarcas*. In this kingdom there are 19 cities, 441 towns, 4197 parishes, and 6 armories, one in each province. [*Murphy.*]

The whole kingdom of Portugal, with its Atlantick islands contains 32,000 square miles; population for every square mile, 74. Without the islands, 27,376 square miles; population 80 to every square mile.

POSSESSIONS OF THE CROWN OF PORTUGAL IN OTHER PARTS OF THE GLOBE.

1. In Asia. Some settlements along the western coast of the Indian peninsula within the Ganges; as, Diu, Chaoul, Goa, of which the latter is the most important, and the seat of the governour of the Portuguese possessions in the East-Indies. Macao, a small town on the coast of China.

2. In Africa. The islands called Azores; the islands of Madeira and Porto Santo; the islands of Cape Verde; several forts along the Gambia, and on the coast of Guinea; the islands of St. Thomas and do Principe; some settlements in Congo, Loango and Angola: (the Portuguese are almost the only nation acquainted with these provinces, with which they carry on a very lucrative trade;) several settlements on the coast of Zanguebar and Sofala, and farther in the country; Mosambique is the most important of these places.

3. In America. The large province of Brazil, divided into 14 capitanias or governments; and small possessions on the coast of Guiana, and in Paraguay. The colony of San Sacramento, on the de la Plata, was taken by the Spaniards in 1777.

Face of the Country and Mountains.] The various inequalities of the surface of this country in general, may be compared to the face of the ocean, on the day succeeding a violent storm. The mountains of Portugal are generally distributed either into chains or clusters, and are barren. The chief are *Arrabida*, a very lofty mountain, or rather chain of mountains, in the province of Estremadura, running from

N. E. to S. W. The friars of the order of St. Francis, have a convent on the most bleak and solitary part of this mountain. *Cintra*, one of the most celebrated mountains in Europe, is about 5 leagues S. W. of Lisbon. To navigators it is well known as the most westerly part of all Europe. *Estrella*, in the province of Beira, whose summit is covered with almost perpetual snow. *Montejunto*, in Estremadura, on whose top are two lakes of water. *Ossa*, a chain of mountains, 7 leagues long, in Alentejo.

Water and Rivers.] The chief Portuguese rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantick Ocean. The principal are the Tagus, Douro, Minho, and Guadiana. The *Tagus* was celebrated for its golden sand. It overflows its banks as regularly as the Nile. It might be made navigable 50 leagues to Alcantasa, for a less sum than has been expended on canals in England. The *Douro* and *Minho* are capable of like improvements. The *Guadiana*, 8 leagues from its source, disappears, and runs 7 leagues under ground. It is 150 leagues in length. Portugal contains several roaring lakes and springs; some of them are absorbent even of the lightest substances, such as wood, cork and feathers; some, particularly one about 45 miles from Lisbon, are medicinal and sanative; and some hot baths are found in the province of Arlgarve. The mineral waters of *Caldos da Rainha*, 13 leagues N. of Lisbon, and *Chaves* are very much esteemed. Besides these there are several springs which may be ranked among the natural curiosities of Portugal. [*Murphy.*]

Soil, Wealth and Commerce.] Portugal, situated in the same genial climate with Spain, abounds, like the latter, in excellent natural productions; it is well watered, and a great part of it bounded by the ocean.

"The country is very mountainous, particularly in certain parts, but less so than Spain, and has more rivers, great and small. The air is more temperate than that of Spain; that of *Cintra* is reckoned the best." [*Reichard.*]

It is possessed of very rich provinces beyond the seas. It is, however, not proportionably powerful; its inhabitants are indigent, and the balance of trade is against it. It is even obliged to import the necessaries of life, chiefly corn, from other countries. In point of population it has rather the advantage of Spain.

Portugal produces wine, wool, oil, the best in Europe, silk, honey, anniseed, sumack; all the finer sorts of fruit enumerated in the preceding table of Spain; some corn, flax and cork. These articles of produce might, with a little industry, be raised in great abundance. There are in this kingdom several evident traces of very rich mines; they continue, however, to be unregarded. Portugal has very little silver in circulation; it is not unusual to find it difficult to make up a sum of twenty pounds in silver. This scarcity was in a great measure owing to an injudicious permission of exporting coined silver.

The exports of Portugal are not inconsiderable; but they are greatly exceeded by the imports. From an account given to the queen between 1770 and 1777 there were exported annually 60,000

pipes, the pipe from 60 to 72 rix-dollars. England alone received annually 14,422 tuns of Port wine. [*Reichard.*] The soil produces no more corn annually than what is barely sufficient for three months consumption; corn, therefore, is the most considerable article of importation from abroad. As no manufactures of any importance are in a thriving state, the Portuguese are supplied by the industry of other nations, chiefly the English, with almost every article of dress, and with most other articles of use and convenience. Woollens, to the value of 2,058,766,150 *reis*, were imported from England in 1784. It seems, that the efforts of government to encourage industry have hitherto been ineffectual. The late minister of state, M. de Pombal, found it impracticable to raise a glass manufacture into consequence, notwithstanding he laid out 80,000 crusades, or 54,000 crowns, upon this scheme, and doubled the duties of foreign glass, in order to encourage the manufacture. A linen manufacture established at Oporto, cannot easily be expected to thrive, while the materials used in it must be imported from the Baltick.

To the above mentioned disadvantages, we must add the want of fisheries, which obliges this country to buy by far the greatest part of the fish it consumes, from other nations. In 1789, there arrived in the river Tagus, 60 British ships laden with Newfoundland fish, to the amount of 59,073 hundred weight. The fish annually imported from England amounts to 200,000l. [*Pink.*] Its commerce is almost entirely in the hands of strangers. It has imposed very heavy duties upon the necessaries of life, a measure which is very unfavourable to industry. In the year 1784, the Portuguese government, in order to encourage the freighting trade, lowered the duties on all goods imported and exported in Portuguese bottoms by 10 per cent. which probably will be of great use to commerce.

In 1785, the goods imported from Great-Britain and Ireland into Portugal, consisting of woollens, corn, fish, wood and hard ware, amounted to upwards of 960,000l. sterling. The English took in return, of the produce of Portugal and Brazil, to the amount of 728,000l. sterling. To support a trade which is, upon the whole, much against Portugal, this kingdom has the resource of ready money drawn from Brazil: If these supplies should ever fail, it would be soon entirely ruined, if it had nothing to rely upon but its present industry. The balance of trade in favour of England is computed at 400,000l. Ireland gains by her exports 63,000l. [*Pink.*] Only 15 millions of livres, in ready money are supposed to circulate in a country which draws annually upwards of 1,500,000l. sterling, or 36 millions of livres, from the mines of Brazil. Since the discovery of these mines, that is, within the last sixty or seventy years, Portugal has brought from Brazil about 2,400 millions of livres, or 100,000,000l. sterling. Besides these large sums of money, Portugal imports from Brazil large quantities of cocoa, sugar, rice train-oil, whale-bone, coffee and medicinal drugs.

No commercial companies have hitherto been established. The principal trading places are the towns of Lisbon, Oporto and Setuval. In former times, when the Portuguese had an extensive commerce and settlements in the East-Indies, their trade to China was important; but it has lately greatly decreased.

Character.] The modern Portuguese retain little of that adventurous, enterprising spirit, that rendered their forefathers, the Lusitanians, so illustrious about 300 years ago.

The Portuguese may be considered under the following classes; the *nobility, gentlemen, merchants, fidalgoes and peasantry.* The *gentlemen* are persons of small independent property in lands or houses. They are not numerous, but they have many virtues. Protectors of the poor, benevolent and humane citizens of the world. Men, who, while they enlighten the nation by their talents, and pursue its most substantial interests, are the most ready and able to protect its rights. The *Fidalgoes* are a band of petty tyrants, who assume this title on account of their noble descent. Among this class are many who have a just claim to honour and respect. But most of them are ignorant and intolerant wretches, who grind the face of the poor, and depopulate the land. To these gentry are to be ascribed the chief part of the miseries of the poor peasantry. Mr. Murphy gives the following account of these Fidalgoes. "By privilege they are gentlemen, in manners clowns; beggars in fortune, monarchs in pride. Too contemptible for the notice of the sovereign; too weak to excite the jealousy of the nobles; but too strong for the peasantry, from whom they exact adoration. They are to be seen in every town, in every village and hamlet, wrapt up to the eyes in capots, brooding over their imaginary importance. The industrious husbandman must not address them but on his knees. His fate and that of his family are at their mercy. On the most trivial pretence they cite him to the court of the next *camarca*, or shire. The wretched farmer in vain attempts to justify himself, and after exhausting his resources to fee lawyers, he is sure to be cast at the end of a tedious and vexatious suit. His property is then seized, even to his very implements; and if it be not found sufficient to satisfy all demands, he is doomed to perish in a prison. Many industrious families have been thus annihilated; and others, apprehensive of sharing the same fate, have forsaken their lands, and often the kingdom, to seek protection in the colonies."

"The *peasantry*, though thus degraded and oppressed, are inoffensive and industrious, and are "the pillars of the state." [*Murphy.*]

In diet the Portuguese are temperate, and the beauty of the climate induces them to spend most of their time abroad; the house being little more than a conveniency for sleeping. [*Pinkerton.*]

The Portuguese ladies are thin and small of stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expressive, and their features generally regular. They are esteemed to be generous, modest and witty. They dress like the Spanish ladies, with much awkwardness and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their husbands to exact from their servants a homage, that, in other countries, is paid only to royal personages. The green, or sea-green eye, so much applauded by the European poets in the middle ages, has still its share of admiration. The French poets frequently mention *green eyes*. Drummond praises "the green eye;" which is still found in the Orkneys. The furniture of the houses, especially of their grandees, is rich and superb to excess; and they maintain an incredible number of domesticks, as they never discharge any

who survive after serving their ancestors. The poorer sort have scarcely any furniture at all; for they, in imitation of the Moors, sit always cross-legged on the ground. Beggars are a formidable class in this country. They do not *ask*, but *demand* charity. When a gang of sturdy beggars meet a decent person on the highway, he *must* offer them money. St. Anthony assails him on one side, St. Francis on the other. Having silenced their clamour in behalf of the favourite saints, he is next attacked for the honour of the Virgin Mary; and thus they rob him for the love of God. [*Murphy.*]

Learning and learned Men.] The ancestors of the present Portuguese were certainly possessed of more true knowledge, with regard to astronomy, geography and navigation, than all the world besides, about the middle of the 16th century, and for some time after. Camoens, who himself was a great adventurer and voyager, was possessed of a true poetical genius, but was neglected. The arts and sciences are now almost entirely neglected, excepting by a few of the clergy.

Universities and Academies.] These are, Coimbra, founded in 1291 by king Dennis; and which had 50 professors; but it has been lately put under some new regulations. Evora, founded in 1553; and the college of the nobles at Lisbon, where the young nobility are educated in every branch of polite learning, and the sciences. The royal academy of Portugal was instituted 1720, by John V. Here also is a military and marine academy, where young gentlemen are educated in the sciences of engineering and naval tacticks. A geographical academy has lately been established, for the purpose of obtaining and publishing more accurate surveys of the kingdom.

The present Royal Academy of Lisbon owes its origin to the reigning sovereign MARIA, the most Faithful. Its members, much to their honour, have steered a course very different from that of their predecessors; so that the institution may be considered as the era of the return of useful knowledge to Portugal. All the books that did belong to the banished Jesuits are kept here, which compose a very large library. The English language is likewise taught here.

Curiosities.] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned form the chief of these. The remains of some castles in the Moorish taste are still standing. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almost entire, and deservedly admired. The walls of Santareen are said to be of Roman work likewise. The church and monastery near Lisbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpressibly magnificent, and several monasteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch is probably one of the finest and richest in the world; the paintings are Mosaick work, so curiously wrought, with stones of all colours, as to astonish the beholders. To these curiosities we may add, that the king is possessed of the largest diamond (which was found in Brazil) that perhaps ever was seen in the world.

Chief Cities.] Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, is one of the most regular built cities in Europe, 2 leagues long and 1 broad. A great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, which also set the remainder on fire upon All Saints day, 1755. It still contains many magnificent palaces, churches and publick buildings. Its situation (rising from

the Tagus in the form of a cresent) renders its appearance at once delightful and superb, and it is deservedly accounted the greatest port in Europe, next to London and Amsterdam. The harbour is spacious and secure, and the city itself is guarded from any sudden attack, towards the sea by forts, though they would make but a poor defence against ships of war. All that part of the city that was demolished by the earthquake, is planned out in the most regular and commodious form. Some large squares, and many streets are already built. The streets form right angles, and are broad and spacious. The houses are lofty, elegant, and uniform; and being built of white stone, make a beautiful appearance. The population is estimated at 200,000. The second city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain 40,000 inhabitants. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the shops are coopers. The merchants assemble daily in the chief street, to transact business; and are protected from the sun by sail-cloths, hung across from the opposite houses. About thirty English families reside here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

Braga is a considerable town. In the city of Coimbra is an ancient university. Tavora has 5000 inhabitants.

Government.] Towards the latter end of the 16th century, the diets, or meetings of the states, were discontinued, and the council of the three estates, *(Junta dos tres estados)* viz. the clergy, the nobility, and the cities, now substituted in lieu of those assemblies, is composed only of such members as are nominated by the king himself. Since that time, the government of the kingdom of Portugal is absolutely monarchical; yet the political influence of the two first estates is still now and then perceived.

The fundamental laws of Portugal are, 1. The statutes of Alphonsus, published at Lamego in 1143, consisting of 22 regulations relative to the royal succession, to the rights of jurisdiction, the independence of the kingdom, and the rights of the nobility. 2. The manifesto of the states, published in 1641, immediately after the revolution relating to the order of succession.

The civil laws of Portugal are contained in the edicts of the kings; and where these are deficient, the Roman laws are consulted. In ecclesiastical matters, the canon law in its full extent is adopted, and the power and authority of the pope is very great in this kingdom.

The chief departments of government are the following: The Council of State, the Council of War, the Aulick Council *(Disembargo do Paco)* or Supreme Court of Justice, the Council of Finances, and the Royal Board of Censure, *(Regia Mesa censoria.)*

In the inferior courts of justice the judges are nominated by the king, or by the possessors of the large estates; in the superior courts, by the king exclusively. There are two courts of appeal at Lisbon and Oporto; from which appeal may be made in the last instance to the Aulick Council. The magistrates of the towns have likewise an inferior jurisdiction in matters of less importance. The proceedings in the courts of justice are slow and arbitrary; and the number of lawyers and law-officers is exceedingly great.

Finances.] The revenue of the crown is 1,800,000l. sterling; [56 millions of French livres, *Reichard.*] It arises from the customs and duties, from several internal taxes, from the mines of Brazil, of the produce of which one fifth belongs to the king, estimated at 350,000l. sterling; from other duties on the produce of Brazil; from a tax on the rent of lands, which is 10 per cent. of the yearly income; from duties on imported goods, at 16 per cent. and duties of 5 per cent. on exported goods.

The publick debts were estimated, in 1774, at only 28 millions of crusades. In 1784, at 24 millions of crusades. [*Reichard.*]

Army.] The army consists of 24 or 25,000 men. According to the establishment of the year 1772, the army ought to consist of 35,998 men, viz. 38 regiments of foot, at 811 men each; and of 12 regiments of cavalry, of 400 men each. The late Count de Lippe has made considerable improvements in the military discipline of Portugal. The nation has great cause to regret the narrow system of policy that induced the king's ministers to dispense, so prematurely, with his services; until, at least, he ascertained the extent and direction of mountains, and other natural barriers, the course and rapidity of rivers, the position and strength of fortresses, so necessary to be laid down in charts and plans in order to prosecute a campaign on scientifick principles. Of these great requisites, they have yet but an imperfect knowledge; nor are their neighbours, and natural political enemies much better informed in this respect. Hence an engineer, in the service of the latter, has observed perhaps with truth, that the two powers, since the foundation of their respective monarchies, have not made one judicious campaign. [*Murphy.*] Besides the regular army, they have a country militia, formed of peasants.

Navy.] With respect to the naval force, though it is much improved of late years, it is greatly inferior to what it had been, under John III. This monarch is allowed to have surpassed all his predecessors, in attention to maritime affairs. During his reign, 20 men of war, and 4 large gallies, were constantly in commission to defend the coasts of the kingdom, and convoy the rich fleets from the colonies, exclusive of the fleets stationed in India and China. After John IV. ascended the throne, the marine force of this kingdom was nearly annihilated. It has since been gradually increasing. At present, the navy consists of 13 ships of the line and 15 frigates. Five ships of the line are stationed on the coast of Brazil. There are two regiments of marines and a corps of naval artillery. In 1784, the navy consisted of 17 ships of the line, from 40 to 80 guns, and 7 frigates.

Population, Language and Religion.] There are in Portugal 2,588,470 inhabitants, or according to Boethiher 1,838,679, of which nearly 230,000 are ecclesiasticks. The females are estimated at 1,500,000; the aged at 50,000; the children at 300,000; the peasantry, labourers and mechanicks, at 600,000. They speak a dialect of the Spanish language, but differing from it so much that the books of one language are translated into the other. It is a mixture of Spanish, Arabick and French.

The state of religion in Portugal exactly resembles that of Spain: The intolerant bigotry of the established Roman Catholick religion is

no less prejudicial to the Portuguese, than to the Spanish nation. There are several tribunals of inquisition, viz. at Lisbon, Coimbra, Evora, and at Goa in the East-Indies. A great number of Jews are however in the country, who conform outwardly with the established religion: It is said that many of them are even among the clergy.

The Portuguese clergy consist of one patriarch, a dignity granted to the church of Portugal in the year 1716, of two archbishops and 10 bishops; the number of ecclesiastical persons in the whole amounts to 200,000; 30,000 of which are monks and nuns; according to others there are 60,000 monks and nuns, and 745 convents. The proportion of clerical persons to that of laymen, is as 1 to 11. There are three spiritual orders of knighthood in Portugal, that of Avis, of Santiago, and of Christ; the last is by far the most opulent.

History.] Portugal was anciently called Lusitania, and inhabited by tribes of wandering people, till it became subject to the Carthaginians and Phœnicians, who were dispossessed by the Romans 250 years before Christ. In the fifth century it fell under the yoke of the Suevi and Vandals, who were driven out by the Goths of Spain, in the year 589; but when the Moors of Africa made themselves masters of the greatest part of Spain, in the beginning of the eighth century, they penetrated into Lusitania; there they established governours, who made themselves kings. After many fruitless attempts made by the kings of Leon on this part of Spain, Alonzo V. king of Castile and Leon, carried here his victorious arms, and to ensure his conquest, he gave it, in the year 1088, with the title of count, or earl, to Henry, grandson of Robert, king of France, who had married Theresa, Alonzo's natural daughter. Henry was succeeded in his earldom by his son Alonzo, who, encouraged by his conquests over the Moors, in the year 1139, assumed the title of king of Portugal. His successors continued till 1580, when, upon the death of Henry, surnamed the Cardinal, it was seized upon by Philip II. king of Spain, after a war of two or three years; but in 1640, the people rebelled, shook off the Spanish yoke, and elected for their king the duke of Braganza, who took the name of John IV. in whose family it has ever since remained independent of Spain. Her present majesty's name is Mary Frances Isabella, who acceded to the throne in the year 1777. On the 10th March, 1792, the Prince of Bazil, as presumptive heir to the crown, published an edict, declaring that, as his mother, the queen, from her unhappy situation, was incapable of managing the affairs of government, he would place his signature to publick papers, till the return of her health, and that no other change should be made in the forms.

ITALIAN STATES.

EXTENT, SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.

THESE States are on a peninsula, formed by the Adriatick and Mediterranean seas; the extreme length N. W. and S. E. is about 670 miles, the medial breadth, 100, though in some parts it is

much wider. They lie between 37° and 46° N. latitude, and 6° and 19° E. longitude, from London. The Alps divide them from France, Switzerland and Germany on the north; the gulf of Venice or Adriatick sea bounds them on the north-east; on the south and west they are washed by the Mediterranean.

Divisions.] The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corsica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other islands, before the late revolutions, were divided in the manner exhibited in the following

TABLE.

	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
To the king of Sardinia	Piedmont	6,619	140	98	Turin
	Savoy	3,572	87	60	Chambery
	Montserrat	446	40	22	Cassal
	Alessandrine	204	27	20	Alexandria
	Oneglia	132	24	7	Oneglia
	Sardinia Island	6,600	135	57	Cagliari
To the king of Naples	Naples	22,000	275	200	Naples
	Sicily Island	9,400	180	92	Palermo
To the Emperor	Milan	5,431	155	70	Milan
	Mantua	700	47	27	Mantua
	Mirandola	120	19	10	Mirandola
	Pope's dominions	14,348	235	143	Rome N.lat. 41 54 E.lon. 12 45
To their respective princes	Tuscany	6,640	115	94	Florence
	Massa	82	16	11	Massa
	Parma	1,225	48	37	Parma
	Modena	1,560	65	39	Modena
	Piombino	100	22	18	Piombino
	Monaco	24	12	4	Monaco
Republicks	Lucca	280	28	15	Lucca
	St. Marino	8			St. Marino
	Genoa	2,400	160	25	Genoa
To England	Corsica Island	2,520	90	38	Bastia
To the republick of Venice	Venice	8,434	175	95	Venice
	Istria P.	1,245	56	32	Capo d'Istria
	Dalmatia P.	1,400	135	20	Zara
	Isles of Dalmatia	1,364			
Islands in the Venetian dominions.	Cephalonia	428	40	18	Cephalonia
	Corfu, or Corcyria	194	31	10	Corfu
	Zant, or Zacynthus	120	23	12	Zant
	St. Maura	56	12	7	St. Maura
	Little Cephalonia Ithaca olim	14	7	3	
	Total,	75,056			

Italy has ever been considered under three divisions, the southern, central and northern. The southern embraces the kingdom of Naples and Sicily; the central, the dominions of the Church, the kingdom of Tuscany, Lucca, St. Marino, Piombino, and the Isle of Elba; the northern, Piedmont, Milan, Mantua, Parma and Placentia, Modena and Genoa.

The southern division is divided from the central chiefly by an arbitrary line, and is more than 300 miles in length by 100 in breadth, containing 29,824 square miles, and six million inhabitants.

The territory belonging to the Pope is the chief part of the central division, and reaches from the Po to beyond the Terracina, more than 260 miles; and contains a little more than two million inhabitants, on 13,808 square miles.

The northern and largest division formerly comprised the extensive territories subject to Venice, and the king of Sardinia, with Milan and Mantua, belonging to the House of Austria, the principalities of Parma and Modena, and the long mountainous strip belonging to the Genoese. But the greater part of the Venetian possessions, to the river Adige, has become subject to the House of Austria; Savoy, the county of Nice, and the small principality of Monaco have been seized by France. This part of Italy therefore is now about 200 miles long from the Adige to Mount Blanc, and about 120 miles broad from the gulf of Genoa to the Swiss frontier. This fertile region was by the French constituted a Republick, under the name of *Cisalpine*, and established by the treaty of Luneville, Feb. 9, 1801, and acknowledged by the treaty of Campo Formio. [*Pinkerton.*]

Soil and Air.] The happy soil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance. Each district has its peculiar excellency and commodity; wines, the most delicious fruits, and oil, are the most general productions. As much corn grows here as serves the inhabitants; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheeses, particularly those called Parmesans, and their native silk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air; and some parts of Italy bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental causes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the most salubrious air of any place perhaps, on the globe, is now almost pestilential, through the decrease of inhabitants, which has occasioned a stagnation of waters and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being, in many places, covered with snow in winter. The Appennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almost divide Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the south being warm, those on the north mild and temperate. The sea breezes refresh the kingdom of Naples so much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithstanding its southern situation. In general, the air of Italy, may be said to be dry and pure.

Face of the Country.] The landscape painter is enraptured with an Italian prospect. The delicious tints of aerial perspective, the variety of the scenery, noble architecture, venerable remains of ancient arts, and the glowing hues of nature unite to please the lovers of art and nature. [*Pinkerton.*]

Mountains.] We have already mentioned the Alps and Appennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. Mount Cenis is 11,977 feet above the sea, Little Mount Cenis is 9,956, Mount Rosa is more than 15,500, Mount Blanc by Shuckborough is 15,662, by

De Luc 15,304. The famous volcano of Mount Vesuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples. See Article *Antiquities and Curiosities.*

Rivers and Lakes.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebbia, the Arno, and the Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The Po is the most noble. Descending from the western Alps it falls into the gulf of Venice, after a course of 300 miles. The Arno has its source in the Appennines, and after passing Florence and Pisa, falls into the gulf of Genoa. The Tiber, an immortal stream, rises S. E. of St. Marino, and falls into the Mediterranean at the city of Rome, after a course of 150 miles. The famous Rubicon, a small stream, forms the southern boundary between Italy and the ancient Cisalpine Gaul.

The lakes of Italy are, the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Isco and Garda in the North; the Perugia or Tharsimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

Seas, Gulfs or Bays, Capes, Promontories and Straits.] Without a knowledge of these, neither the ancient Roman authors, nor the history nor geography of Italy, can be understood. The seas of Italy are, the gulfs of Venice, or the Adriatick Sea; the seas of Naples, Tuscany and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucia, Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita, Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policrastro, Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieste, Istria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento del Alice, Otranto and Ancona; and the strait of Messina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulfs and bays in the Italian islands are those of Florenzo, Bastia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corso, Bonifacio and Ferro, in Corsica, and the strait of Bonifacio, between Corsica and Sardinia. The bays of Caligari and Oristagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Messina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, Syracuse and Satania, capes Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Passaro and Allessia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto Longone, in the island of Elba.

Metals and Minerals.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral springs; some hot, some warm, and many of sulphureous, chalybeate, and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable stones. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

Population and Character.] Of the population of Italy we cannot speak with certainty. The king of Sardinia's subjects, according to Zimmermann, amounted, in 1787, to 3,170,000, viz. in the dutchy of Piedmont, 2,450,000, in the dutchy of Savoy, 300,000, in the kingdom of Sardinia, 420,000. Naples had about 4,500,000 souls, and Sicily about 1,300,000. The city of Milan itself, by the best accounts, contains 300,000, and the dutchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of natives that live in the country, and inform us, by conjecture only, of those who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have arisen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14 million of inhabitants. It is,

however, believed that the present inhabitants amount to 20 millions; but some calculations exceed this number. Mr. Pinkerton, on the authority of Boethiher, says, the present population of Italy, with the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, cannot be estimated at more than 13 millions.

The national character of the Italians, has lately been given by the Abbe Jagemann, member of the Florentine Academy of Agriculture, as follows: "Considering the mildness of the climate, the uncommon fertility of the soil, the situation of most towns and boroughs on hills, the excellent spring water from the Alps and the Appenines, the number of mineral waters and baths, the spaciousness of the streets and houses, the delightful views, the frequent residence of the Italians on their villas, the fragrancy and healthiness of the air, the temperate diet, the facility of getting cured of diseases in the hospitals, one is inclined to think that the corporeal frame of an Italian, if not enervated in early youth, cannot but be strong, healthy and beautiful. The handsomest persons of either sex are found in Tuscany. The Italians, in general, are also endowed with good sense and discernment; apt to despise mere theoretical speculations, and to judge by their own feelings and experience: But education is rather neglected. The chief part of their religion consists in an external observance and practice of ecclesiastical rites, ceremonies and injunctions. An Italian, not enlighted by reflection and experience, will sooner commit adultery than eat any flesh-meat on a Friday; but a foreigner, who wishes to pass for a Roman Catholick, needs only to stick to his window an attestation, by a physician, that his state of health requires a flesh-meat diet; and he may, without any risk, eat flesh-meat in Lent. Such attestations may be purchased in coffee-houses, at Florence. The Italians are very sensual; exceedingly fond of musick; little addicted to drunkenness and coarse jokes; impatient of delay in their passion for the fair sex; jealous of the French, but fond of the national characters of the English and the Germans. They still breathe their ancient spirit of liberty and republicanism, and are averse to monarchical government, to which they were subjected by force. Hence a true born Italian, of an independent fortune, seldom courts publick employments; hence their best geniuses too are little known; hence also their almost general inclination to satire, and the bitterness of their satires; hence their general hatred and contempt for the military service, and for the ministers and executors of criminal jurisdiction. Their dress and their whole conduct prove their fondness of liberty and ease, and their aversion to constraint, ceremony and compliments. As so great a variety of enjoyments and conveniencies are, for an Italian, so many necessaries of life, he must be a rigid economist; but those most famous for their economical management, are the Florentines and the Genoese. Hence their habitual custom of entering into the most minute details and calculations, and of strictly adhering to rules. Hence their peculiar talents and skill for commerce, trade, political economy, finances, their avidity for gain, and their envy at the prosperity of other people. Their resentment lasts only till they have produced a satisfaction adequate to a wrong sustained; they are less irascible than many other nations: But when

grossly injured in their character or fortunes, they are capable of every excess. Of assassinations, however, Abbe Jagemann recollects only three instances in Tuscany, in fifteen years. From their mutual distrust, an Italian indeed seldom becomes an intimate friend to another Italian; but then their friendship proves the more cordial and lasting. No nation is more compassionate to the distressed, or more ready to serve strangers; yet letters of recommendation ought not to be neglected by travellers."

Religion.] The religion of the Italians is Roman Catholick. The inquisition here is little more than a sound; and persons of all religions live unmolested in Italy, provided no gross insult is offered to their worship. The ecclesiastical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in describing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holiness, are seventy; but that number is seldom or never complete: They are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalship, the pope regulates himself according to the nomination of the princes who profess that religion. His chief minister is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amassing what he can. When met in a consistory, the cardinals pretend to control the pope, in matters both spiritual and temporal, and have been sometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is seldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a scene where the cardinals principally endeavour to display their parts, and where many transactions pass, which hardly shew their inspiration to be from the Holy Ghost. During the election of a pope, in 1721, the animosities ran so high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw inkstandishes at each other. We shall here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the protestant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Christians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows:

"I most firmly admit and embrace the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and all other constitutions of the church of Rome.

"I do admit the holy scriptures in the same sense that holy mother-church doth, whose business it is to judge of the true sense and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous consent of the fathers.

"I do profess and believe that there are seven sacraments of the law, truly and properly so called, instituted by Jesus Christ our Lord, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of these, baptism, confirmation and orders, may not be repeated without sacrilege. I do also receive and admit the received and approved rites of the Catholick church in her solemn administration of the abovesaid sacraments.

" I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent* concerning original sin and justification.

" I do also profess that in the mass there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead ; and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist, there is truly, really and substantially, the body and blood, together with the soul and divinity, of our Lord Jesus Christ ; and that there is a conversion made of the whole substance of the bread into the body, and of the whole substance of the wine into the blood ; which conversion the catholick church calls Transubstantiation. I confess that under one kind only, whole and entire, Christ and a true sacrament is taken and received.

" I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory ; and that the souls kept prisoners there do receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

" I do likewise believe that the saints reigning together with Christ, are to be worshipped and prayed unto ; and that they do offer prayers unto God for us, and that their relicks are to be had in veneration.

" I do most firmly assert, that the images of Christ, of the blessed Virgin the mother of God, and of other saints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them.

" I do likewise affirm, that the power of indulgencies was left by Christ to the church, and that the use of them is very beneficial to Christian people.

" I do acknowledge the holy catholick and apostolical Roman church to be the mother and mistress of all churches ; and I do promise and swear true obedience to the bishop of Rome, the successor of St. Peter, the prince of the apostles, and vicar of Jesus Christ.

" I do undoubtingly receive and profess all other things which have been delivered, defined and declared by the sacred canons and œcumenical councils, and especially by the holy synod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all heresies condemned, rejected, and anathematised by the church, I do likewise condemn, reject, and anathematise."

The established religion is not quite so intolerant in the kingdom of Sardinia as in some other states : The wisdom of government has greatly limited the power of the pope and of the inquisition. A stop is likewise put to the persecutions of the harmless Protestants, in the vallies of Lucern, Peyrouse, and St. Martin, formerly so famous by the name of Vaudois, on account of their sufferings and firm adherence to the cause of truth : Their number amounts to about 20,000. The very numerous clergy in this kingdom are not rich. The church is governed by five archbishops and 26 bishops : The whole number of clerical persons, including monks and nuns, is said to amount to 350,000 ; but this statement, probably, is too large. They are obliged to pay the same taxes with the laity, besides other burthens which the king has it in his power to impose on them. The

* A convocation of Roman Catholick cardinals, archbishops, bishops and divines, who assembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the Pope, anno 1546, to determine on certain points of faith and to suppress, what they were pleased to term, the Rising Heresies in the church.

clergy are indeed entirely dependent on the king, and subject to the secular jurisdiction. The church preferments are all in the gift of the king.

The inhabitants of Naples and Sicily are bigoted Roman Catholicks, and more zealous than those of Rome. There is, however, no inquisition established in the country. The power of the pope in these kingdoms is not great. In Naples, some prebends are in his gift; but in Sicily, all church preferment is in the gift of the king. The clergy are very numerous; and so rich, that not less than one half of the riches of the country are in the possession of the church. There are, in Naples, 20 archbishops and 107 bishops: In Sicily, three archbishops and eight bishops. In the year 1782, there were in Naples alone 45,525 priests, 24,694 monks, and 20,793 nuns. In 1783, government resolved to dissolve 466 convents of nuns.

The Pope Pontus Pius VII. (Chiaramonti, elected March 14, 1800) in Jan. 1801, issued a bull against the *looseness of female dress*. To this he ascribes all the disorders which have afflicted Europe and depressed the church.

Learning and learned Men, Painters, Statuaries, Architects and Artists. Since the revival of learning, some Italians have shone in controversial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by those of their own persuasion. The mathematicks and natural philosophy owe much to Galileo, Toricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and several other Italians. Strada is an excellent historian; and the history of the council of Trent, by the celebrated father Paul, is a standard work. Machiavel is equally famous as an historian and as a political writer. Among the prose writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the most pure and correct in point of style: He was a very natural painter of life and manners; but his productions are licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the spirit and genius of ancient literature: But among the Italian poets, Dante, Ariosto and Tasso, are the most distinguished. Metastasio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatick pieces set to musick. Socinus, who was so much distinguished by his opposition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, sculptors, architects and musicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning after the sack of Constantinople by the Turks, revived taste likewise, and gave mankind a relish for truth and beauty in design and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, assisted by the ancients, struck out a new creation with his pencil, and still stands at the head of the art of painting. Michael Angelo Buonaroti, united in his own person painting, sculpture and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried sculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veronese, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their several manners. The same may be said of Corelli, and other Italians, in musick. At present, Italy cannot justly boast of any remarkable genius, in the fine arts.

Universities.] Those of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Perusia, Ferrara, Pisa, which has 46 Professors, Naples, Salerno, Palermo, Catania; the four last are in Naples and Sicily.

Antiquities and Curiosities natural and artificial.] Italy is the native country of all that is stupendous, great, or beautiful, either in ancient or modern times. A library might be filled by descriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in arts;* nor do the bounds of this work admit of enlarging upon this subject. We can give but a very brief account of those objects that are most distinguished either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the first rank, as a species of the most striking magnificence: There are at Rome, considerable remains of that which was erected by Vespasian, and finished by Domitian, called the Colisseo. Twelve thousand Jewish captives were employed by Vespasian in this building; and it is said to have been capable of containing eighty-seven thousand spectators seated, and twenty thousand standing. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its proportions are so just, that it does not appear near so large as it really is. But it has been stripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at various times, and by various enemies. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the consul Flaminius, is thought to be the most entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of steps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and above two feet broad. Twenty-two thousand persons may be seated here at their ease, allowing one foot and a half for each person. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired with the greatest care, at the expense of the inhabitants. They frequently give publick spectacles in it, such as horse-races, combats of wild beasts, &c. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are also visible in other places. The triumphal arches of Vespasian, Septimius Severus and Constantine the Great, are still standing, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces and temples answer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The pantheon, which is at present converted into a modern church, and which, from its circular figure, is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple which is now remaining. There are still left several of the niches which anciently contained the statues of the heathen deities. The outside of the building is of Tivoli free-stone, and within it is incrusted with marble. The roof of the pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement consists of large square stones and porphyry, sloping round towards the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome,

* The French, during the short period they held possession of Italy, after its conquest by Gen. Bonaparte, in 1798, plundered it of many of its greatest curiosities, and finest specimens of genius.

is conveyed away by a proper drain covered with a stone full of holes. The colonnade in the front, which consists of sixteen columns of granite, thirty-seven feet high, exclusive of the pedestals and capitals, each cut out of a single block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without astonishment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a single piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vase of Numidian marble: and in the area before the church is a fountain, with an antique bason of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with instructive sculptures, are still remaining. A traveller forgets the devastations of the northern barbarians, when he sees the rostrated column erected by Duillius, in commemoration of the first naval victory which the Romans gained over the Carthagenians; the statue of the wolf giving suck to Romulus and Remus, with visible marks of the stroke of lightning mentioned by Cicero; the very original brass plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thousand other identical antiquities, some of them transmitted unhurt to the present times; not to mention medals and the infinite variety of seals and engraved stones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furnished with busts and statues fabricated in the times of the republick and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian and Æmilian roads, the first 200 miles, the second 130 and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places, still entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, bridges, and the like, present themselves all over the country of Italy.

The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as stupendous as those above ground; witness the cloacæ, and the catacombs, or repositories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 30 years since a painter's apprentice discovered the ancient city of Pæstum or Posidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, still standing; for so indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new discovery to the learned. An inexhaustible mine of curiosities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Vesuvius, which in the reign of Nero was almost destroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the first year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a stream of the lava of Vesuvius. The melted lava in its course filled up the streets and houses in some places to the height of sixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. The lava is now of a consistency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away. It is composed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallicks, and vitrified sandy substances, which altogether form a close and heavy mass. In the year 1713, upon digging into these parts, somewhat of this unfortunate city was discovered, and many antiquities were dug out; but the search was afterwards discontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but also the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to

light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a statue of gold, and the inscription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre the fragments of a gilt chariot of Bronze, with horses of the same metal, likewise gilt: This had been placed over the principal door of entrance. They likewise found among the ruins of this city multitudes of statues, bustos, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and various utensils, and the search is still continued. The streets of the town appear to have been quite straight and regular, and the houses well built and much alike; some of the rooms paved with Mosaick, others with fine marbles, others again with bricks, three feet long and six inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up so unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greatest part of the inhabitants from escaping with many of their richest effects; for when the excavations were made, there were not more than a dozen skeletons found, and but little of gold and silver, or precious stones.

The town of Pompeia was destroyed by the same eruption of mount Vesuvius, which occasioned the destruction of Herculaneum; but it was not discovered till near forty years after the discovery of Herculaneum. One street and a few detached buildings, of this town have been cleared. The street is well paved with the same kind of stone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow causeways are raised a foot and a half on each side, for the conveniency of foot passengers. The street is narrow, and is supposed to have been inhabited by trades people. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be seen on the pavement. The houses are small, but give an idea of neatness and conveniency. The best paintings hitherto found at Pompeia, are those found in the temple of the goddess Isis; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few skeletons are found in the streets of this town, but a considerable number in the houses.*

With regard to modern curiosities in Italy, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity. Rome itself contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting and sculpture. Each

* Mr. Gawin Hamilton has lately made a very extraordinary discovery of an ancient city in Italy, on the verge of a mountain near Frescate. Having obtained permission from Prince Borghese, to dig upon his territories for vestiges of antiquity, after an expensive research, the workmen came to the roofs of buildings which were more perfect than those discovered within the 17th century at *Herculaneum*. As they descended in their operations, they found several of the houses entire, and also many of their utensils, and numberless skeletons of the inhabitants in various positions. This newly discovered city, from various inscriptions found among its ruins, appears to be ancient *Gabia*: A city of this name, according to some Roman historians, having formerly been engulphed by an earthquake. In this the fate of *Gabia* differed from that of the *Herculaneum* and *Pompeia*, the two last mentioned places having been destroyed by eruptions from Mount Vesuvius. Sir William Hamilton has visited Naples to explore this wonderful curiosity.

city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter, at Rome, is the most astonishing, bold and regular fabrick that ever perhaps existed; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultless. The house and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithstanding the ridiculous romance that composes its history.

The natural curiosities of Italy, though remarkable, are not so numerous as its artificial. Mount Vesuvius, which is five Italian miles distant from the city of Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of Mount Vesuvius towards the sea, is every where planted with vines and fruit trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful prospect, and the air is clear and wholesome. The south and west sides of the mountain form very different views, being like the top, covered with black cinders and stones. The height of Mount Vesuvius has been computed to be 3,600 feet above the surface of the sea, and 30 miles in circumference. It has been a volcano beyond the reach of history or tradition. An animated description of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witness to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but small and moderate; however, then it broke out with accumulated fury, and desolated several miles around. In 1694 was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with so much force, that some of it fell at thirty miles distance, and a vast quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, such quantities of cinders and ashes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon-day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the 27th from that which destroyed Herculaneum in the time of Titus. In this last eruption, the ashes, or rather small cinders, showered down so fast at Naples, that the people in the streets were obliged to use umbrellas, or adopt some other expedient, to guard themselves against them. The tops of the houses and the balconies were covered with these cinders, and ships at sea, twenty leagues from Naples, were covered with them, to the great astonishment of the sailors. An eruption also happened in 1766, and another in 1779, which has been particularly described by Sir William Hamilton, in the Philosophical Transactions. It has been observed by a modern traveller, that though Mount Vesuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet, as few things in nature are so absolutely noxious as not to produce some good, even this raging volcano, by its sulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of subterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country about it, and to the profusion of fruits and herbage with which it is every where covered. Besides, it is supposed that open and active, the mountain is less hostile to Naples than it would be if its eruptions were to cease, and its struggles confined to its own bowels, for then might ensue the most fatal shocks to the unstable foundation of the

whole district of Terra di Lavora.* "The terrors of an eruption, the subterranean thunders, the thickening smoke, the ruddy flames, the stony showers ejected to a prodigious height, amidst the corruscations of native lightning, the throes of the mountain, the eruption of the lava, descending in a horrid and copious stream of destruction, have exercised the powers of many writers, but far exceed the utmost energy of description."

"Yet Vesuvius, placed by the side of Ætna, would seem a small ejected hill, the whole circuit of its base not exceeding 30 miles, while Ætna covers a space of 180, and its height above the sea is computed at 11,000 feet. This enormous mass is surrounded by smaller mountains, some of which equal Vesuvius in size; and while the lava of the latter may devolve its stream for seven miles, Ætna will emit a liquid fire 30 miles in length." [*Pinkerton.*] It stands separate from all other mountains, its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and sugar canes; the middle or woody region, is covered with vast forests of oaks, beeches, firs and pines. Here are chesnuts also of enormous size; one in particular, distinguished by the name di Ceuto Cavalli, the circumference of which has been found to be 204 feet, an amazing phenomenon of vegetation. [*Pinkerton.*] The upper part is almost the whole year covered with snow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous: In one of these, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were destroyed, and there have been several terrible eruptions since that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people perished.

The islands of Lipari, to the north of Sicily, contain many volcanoes; Stromboli is the chief. It incessantly emits showers of stones, which fall back into the crater. [*Pinkerton.*]

Between the lakes Agnano and Pozzuoli, there is a valley called Solfatara, because vast quantities of sulphur are continually forced out of the clifts by subterranean fires. The Grotto del Cane is remarkable for its poisonous streams, and is so called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers and serpents are said to be common in Apulia.

Among the natural curiosities of Italy, those vast bodies of snow and ice, which are called the Glaciers of Savoy, deserve to be partic-

* Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquakes in Calabria Ultra in Sicily, from February 5th, to May 1783, gives several reasons for believing that they were occasioned by the operations of a volcano, the seat of which lay deep either under the bottom of the sea, between Stromboli and the coast of Calabria, or under the parts of the plain towards Oppido and Terra Nuova. He plainly observed a gradation in the damage done to the buildings, as also in the degree of mortality, in proportion as the countries were more or less distant from this supposed centre of the evil. One circumstance he particularly remarked: If two towns were situated at an equal distance from this centre, the one on a hill, the other on a plain or in a bottom, the latter had always suffered greatly more by the shocks of the earthquakes than the former; a sufficient proof to him of the cause coming from beneath, as this must naturally have been productive of such an effect.

ularly mentioned. There are five glaciers, which extend almost to the plain of the vale of Chomouny, and are separated by wild forests, corn-fields, and rich meadows; so that immense tracts of ice are blended with the highest cultivation, and perpetually succeed to each other, in the most singular and striking vicissitude. All these several vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are some leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc; the highest mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world. According to the calculations of Mr. de Luc, the height of this mountain, above the level of the sea, is 15,303 English feet. "I am convinced," says Mr. Cox, "from the situation of Mont Blanc, from the heights of the mountains around it, from its superior elevation above them, and its being seen at a great distance from all sides, that it is higher than any mountain in Switzerland; which, beyond a doubt, is, next to Mont Blanc, the highest ground in Europe."

States of Italy, Government and Chief Cities.] Thus far, of Italy in general; but as the Italian States are not, like the republicks of Holland or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable, (for every Italian state has distinct forms of government trade and interests) we shall be obliged to take a separate view of each, to assist the reader in forming an idea of the whole. We shall describe them as they existed before the late changes happened.

SARDINIA.

THE duke of Savoy, or king of Sardinia, was a powerful prince, in Italy, of which he was called the Janus, or keeper, against the French. His capital, Turin, is strongly fortified, and one of the finest cities in Europe, containing 65,000 inhabitants, and 110 churches.

Of the dominions of his Sardinian majesty, the dutchy of Savoy alone is not fertile. The island of Sardinia, and the provinces of Piedmont and Montserrat abound in corn, wine, oil oranges, lemons, almonds, figs, maize, rice, hemp and flax. Sardinia has large flocks of sheep; the number of sheep is said to amount to 1,600,000: It is remarkable, that in this island there subsists still a species of wild sheep called the *muston*. The fisheries on the coast of Sardinia produced, even in the worst years, upwards of 60,000 scudi, in the article of tunny fish, and a considerable sum for black fish, (sepia Lirin) and anchovies, besides other species of fish. Some mines in this island produce iron, and a small quantity of silver: Salt, sufficient for the consumption of the country, is made of sea-water: There are likewise quarries of marble, alabaster, and other valuable stones. Savoy is celebrated on account of its breed of mules, many of which are sent abroad. Piedmont raises large quantities of the finest silk; single peasants often raise 100lb. each, every year. Upwards of 100,000lb. are required to supply the silk manufactures at Turin, where there are about 600 looms for silk stockings. In the village of Torre, in Piedmont, upwards of 50,000lb. of silk are spun. About 300,000lb. of raw and spun silk are annually sent to Switzerland: The whole pro-

duce of raw silk in the Sardinian dominions is estimated at 650,000lb. Piedmont has woollen manufactures, which supply the clothing of the army. There is a manufacture of ropes and tackle in this province, a large quantity of which articles is exported from Nizza to Marseilles, Toulon and Genoa. Of the Piedmontese wines, a considerable quantity is exported to Genoa and Milan, and several delicate spirituous liquors are distilled, known by the name of rossoli. The imports of the Sardinian provinces, which are nearly the same with those of the rest of Italy, consist of hardware, metals, cotton, woollen, and silk stuffs, linen, leather, whalebone, train-oil, herrings, cod, tar, pitch, timber, porcelain, &c. The goods imported from England into Italy amount annually to about 513,000l. sterling; and England takes in return 687,155l. sterling, which leaves a considerable balance in favour of Italy. Trade is much discouraged in Italy by the heavy duties imposed on it; and in the islands of Sardinia and Sicily it is still more stagnated. A great fair is kept every year at Alessandria.

The government in the Sardinian states was absolutely monarchical. In the island of Sardinia, however, the states assembled; but merely to grant free gifts or subsidies to the king, in whose hands the whole legislative as well as executive power was vested. As the provinces which composed this kingdom were united under the same government at different periods of time, and had formed independent states before, each of them had its peculiar laws and customs, which were suffered to continue in force, as far as they did not militate against the king's edicts. Among the state departments, the council of state was the highest. Sardinia formed a separate government, under a viceroy. Justice was administered by a number of inferior and territorial courts, in which the proprietors of large estates appointed the judges; the judges of the superior courts were appointed by the king: From these courts, appeal lay to several courts of appeal, the highest of which was *il supremo real consiglio*, at Turin. What alterations have been made in this government we are not able to state.

The revenue of the king amounted to 1,000,000l. sterling yearly. The royal revenues were raised from the crown domains, from the customs, the mint, the posts, land tax, salt duty, stamps, a monopoly of tobacco, and a lottery of that sort called *Lotto di Genoa*. All matters of finances were under the direction of a minister, or intendant general of finances.

The army of his Sardinian Majesty, in time of peace, consisted of 22,000 men, and in time of war of upwards of 30,000.

The provinces of Savoy and Piedmont are, by their situation, the key to Italy; and they have been considered as of the greatest consequence in wars between the house of Austria and France. Both these powers have, therefore, always courted the alliance of the princes, possessed of these provinces; and the latter have wisely availed themselves of this favourable situation, to increase their own power, by joining either of the two, as it best suited their views. The king of Sardinia was the most powerful prince in Italy. Under the present reign, which has been distinguished by its wisdom and activity, the the state was in a rising and prosperous condition, till the irruption of

the French armies. Its revenue was increasing. The sciences were likewise in a flourishing state. Turin has a university, a society of sciences, and a library of 50,000 volumes, and collections of paintings and statues. Two other universities are established at Cagliari and Sassari: The other institutions of education are greatly improving, in consequence of a regulation, enjoining schoolmasters to undergo a strict examination at the university, before they are permitted to give instructions.

MILAN.

THE dutchy of Milan lies S. of the Grisons, and W. of the Venetian States. It has a population of 1,116,850. Scarcely a country in Europe is more delightfully situated, or more fertile in a variety of rich productions. Every where it is watered either by rivulets or canals. The district of Lodi has fine pastures, and is famous for its cattle. The cheese improperly called *Parmesan*, is made here. This state belonging to the house of Austria, formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, are very strong, and furnished with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothick taste, which contains a very rich treasury, consisting chiefly of ecclesiastical furniture, composed of gold, silver, and precious stones. The city, including its extensive gardens, is 10 miles in circumference. Its chief defence is a wall and rampart, with the citadel of 6 bastions. It is reputed a place of strength. It has 22 gates, 230 churches, 100 religious fraternities, 120 schools, and about 250,000 inhabitants, or 120,000 according to Pinkerton. The revenue of the dutchy is above 300,000l. annually, equal to the maintenance of an army of 30,000 men. The natives are fond of literary and political assemblies, when they converse on almost all subjects. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports. What now remains to the house of Austria, of the dutchy of Milan, together with the Dukedom of Mantua, is under a general governour, and includes the Milanese Proper, the territories of Como, Pavia, Lodi, and Cremona.

GENOA.

THE republick of Genoa is degenerated greatly from its ancient power and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a most superb city, 10 miles in circumference, and contains some very magnificent palaces, particularly those of Doria* and Durazzo, and is defended towards the land by a double wall. Several bastions are erected on rocks which rise a-

* Andrew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his military exploits, and the delivery of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468; He was offered the Sovereignty of the state, but refused it, and gave to the people that republican form of government which still subsists; he lived to the age of 93, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

bove the water on the sea shore. The arsenal contains arms for 34,000 men, and a shield, containing 120 pistols, made by one Vacche, for the purpose of assassinating the Doge and senate at one time. The inhabitants of distinction dress in black, in a plain, if not an uncouth manner. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues and paper. Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants, [80,000 according to Pinkerton] among whom are many rich trading individuals.

The population of the republick is computed at 400,000. In 1778 a road was made from the mountains to the N. of Genoa, which for three years employed from 5 to 800 men. The expense was borne by one family by the name of Cambiasi.

The fleet of this republick anciently so celebrated for its victories over the Saracens, Pisanese, Venetians, Spaniards, and Turks, and for continuing a considerable time masters of Sardinia, Malta, Majorca, Minorca, Candia, Cyprus, and other places in and near the Mediterranean and Archipelago, and even of the Black Sea, the Crimea, and other parts, is now reduced to six gallies. The celebrated discoverer of America, CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, was born in this republick, in the period of its naval glory.

The chief safety of this republick consists in the jealousy of other European powers, because to any one of them it would be a most valuable acquisition. The common people are wretched beyond expression. The soil of its territory is poor. Near the sea some parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is aristocratical, being vested in the nobility: The chief person is called the Doge, or Duke: to which dignity no person is promoted till he is fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge is chosen, and the former is incapable, during five years, of holding the same post again. The doge gives audience to ambassadors: all orders of government are issued in his name, and he is allowed a body guard of 200 Germans. It has suffered severely during the present war.

VENICE.

VENICE is one of the most celebrated republicks in the world, on account both of its constitution and former power. It is composed of several fine provinces in Italy, some islands in the Adriatick, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is seated on 72 islands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatick sea, and is separated from the continent by a marshy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too shallow for large ships to navigate, which forms its principal strength. Over the several canals between 4 and 500 bridges have been erected, the greater part of stone; the highest and longest is the Rialto, which consists of a single arch; its foundation takes up 90 feet, and rests on 12,000 elm piles, and every where incrusted with marble. It is said to have cost the republick 250,000 ducats. Venice preserves the vestiges of its ancient magnificence, but is, in every respect, degenerated, except in the passion which its inhabitants still retain for musick and mummery during their carnivals. They seem to have lost

their ancient taste for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothicism. Lately, however, have had some spirited differences with the court of Rome, and seem to be disposed to throw of their obedience to its head.

The constitution of the republick was originally democratical, the magistrates being chosen by a general assembly of the people, and so continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place; doges, or dukes were appointed, who were invested with great power, which they often grossly abused, and some of them were assassinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary legislative nobility was formed; continued and progressive encroachments were made on the rights of the people, and a complete aristocracy was at length established upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility are divided into six classes, amounting in the whole to 2,500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. These elect a doge or chief magistrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which is managed by gold and silver balls. The doge is invested with great state and with emblems of supreme authority, but has very little power, and is not permitted to stir from the city without the permission of the grand council. His yearly income is 12,000 Venetian ducats. Of this sum he must spend one half on the four grand entertainments which he is obliged to give every year; and, to live up to his dignity, he must spend on his private fortune. The government and laws are managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwise called the seigniory, is the supreme cabinet council of the state, and also the representative of the republick. This court gives audience, and delivers answers, in the name of the republick, to foreign ambassadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It also receives all requests and memorials on state affairs, summons the senate at pleasure, and arranges the business to be discussed in that assembly. The council of ten takes cognizance of state crimes, and has the power of seizing accused persons, examining them in prison, and taking their answers in writing, with the evidence against them. But the tribunal of state inquisitors, which consists only of three members, and which is in the highest degree despotick in its manner of proceeding, has the power of deciding without appeal, on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian state; the highest of the nobility, even the doge himself, not being excepted. To these three inquisitors is given the right of employing spies, considering secret intelligence, issuing orders to seize all persons whose words or actions they think reprehensible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they think proper. They have the keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and can, whenever they please, penetrate into the very bedchamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers; and, of course, they may command access to the house of every individual in the state.

They continue in office only one year, but are not responsible afterwards for their conduct whilst they are in authority. So much distrust and jealousy are displayed by this government, that the noble

Venetians are afraid of having any intercourse with foreign ambassadors, or with foreigners of any kind, and are even cautious of visiting at each other's houses.

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dressed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatick once a year, by dropping into it a ring, from his bucentaur or stage-barge, attended by those of all the nobility, is the most superb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable for magnificence to a lord mayor's shew in London. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the publick palaces, the treasury and the arsenal, are beyond expression. The Venetians still have some manufacturers in scarlet cloth, gold and silver stuffs, and above all, fine looking-glasses, all which bring in a considerable revenue to the owners; that of the state annually is said to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty pence of English money. Out of this are defrayed the expenses of the state and the pay of the army, which in the time of peace consists of 16,000 regular troops, (always commanded by a foreign general) and 10,000 militia. They keep up a small fleet for curbing the insolencies of the piratical states of Barbary, and they have among them some orders of knighthood, the chief of which are those of the *Stolo doro*, so called from the robe they wear, which is conferred only on the first quality, and the military order of St. Mark.

In ecclesiastical matters the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power: And both of them are chosen by the senate; and all religious sects, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting Protestants, are here tolerated in the free exercise of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively ingenious people, extravagantly fond of publick amusements, with an uncommon relish for humour. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine, manly countenances are met with in the streets of Venice, resembling those transmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veronese and Titian. The women are of a fine style of countenance, with expressive features, and are of an easy address. The common people are remarkably sober, obliging to strangers, and gentle in their intercourse with each other. As it is very much the custom to go about in masks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there is much more licentiousness of manners here than in other places; but this opinion seems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of strangers visit Venice during the time of the carnival, and there are eight or nine theatres here, including the opera-houses.

The dominions of Venice consist of a considerable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the islands of Corfu, Pachsu, Antipachsu, Santa, Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia and Zante. The Venetian territories in Italy contain the dutchy of Venice, the Paduanese, the peninsula of Romo Cremasco, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The subjects of the Venetian republick are not oppressed; The senate has found that

mild treatment and good usage are the best policy, and more effectual than armies, in preventing revolts. The number of inhabitants in the city of Venice is estimated at 160,000; and the whole state, at 2,500,000.

TUSCANY.

THE dutchy of Tuscany is situated between the Mediterranean, the Tiber, and the Appennines; some parts of it are distributed among the territories of Modena, Lucca and Genoa. The face of the country is beautifully varied with hills and vallies, producing corn in abundance and excellent fruit, oranges, lemons, olives and grapes. Manna is gathered on the marsh lands near the sea. The principal city of Tuscany is Florence, belonging to a younger branch of the House of Austria. It was long held by the illustrious House of Medicis, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich and masterly in architecture, literature and the arts, especially those of painting and sculpture. It is thought to contain 80,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often described; but all description falls short of their contents, so that in every respect it is reckoned, after Rome, the second city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, on the whole, is thought to be the standard of taste in female beauty and proportion, stands in a room called the Tribunal. The inscription on its base mentions its having been made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and surrounded by other master pieces of sculpture, some of which are said to be the works of Praxitles, and other Greek masters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which stands between mountains covered with olive trees, vineyards and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders in the arts of painting, statuary and architecture. It is a place of some strength, and contains an archbishop's see, and a university. The inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of the Academia della Crusca, and several other academies are now established at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great state, yet their nobility and gentry carry on a retail trade in wine, which they sell from their cellar windows, and sometimes they even hang out a broken flask as a sign where it may be bought. They deal also in fruits, and in gold and silver stuffs. The archduke Peter Leopold introduced a great reformation both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. Leghorn contains 45,000, of whom 20,000 are Jews, who have a handsome synagogue. Pisa has a population of 20,000. It is thought that the great dutchy of Tuscany could bring into the field, upon occasion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its present revenues are above 500,000l. a year. Leghorn is a very handsome city, built in the modern taste, and with such regularity, that both gates are seen from the market place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the sea, besides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable prospect of the sea, and of many villas on the land side.

Here all nations, and even the Mahometans, have free access, and may settle. A treaty of "amity, peace and good understanding," was entered into between the Grand Duke of Tuscany and the French Republick, Feb. 9th, 1795. Changes have since taken place.

LUCCA.

THE inhabitants of Lucca, which is a small free commonwealth, lying on the Tuscan sea, in a most delightful plain, are the most industrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000l. sterling. The republick extends over 288 square miles, its present aristocratick constitution was established in 1730. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in goods, wines and fruits, especially olives. This republick is under the protection of the emperor. The vicinity of the grand dutchy of Tuscany keeps the people of Lucca constantly on their guard, in order to preserve their freedom; for in such a situation, a universal concord and harmony can alone enable them to transmit to posterity the blessings of their darling liberty, whose name they bear on their arms, and whose image is not only impressed on their coin, but also on the city gates, and all their publick buildings. It is also observable, that the inhabitants of this little republick, being in possession of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulness and plenty, seldom to be found among those of the neighbouring countries.

ST. MARINO.

THE republick of St. Marino is here mentioned as a geographical curiosity. Its territories consist of a high, craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, between Romagna and Urbino, and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties, as a republick, for about 1,400 years. It is under the protection of the pope; and the inoffensive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the small value of their territory, have preserved its constitution. St. Marino, the capital of this little republick, is well fortified, and is 125 miles N. of Rome.

PARMA.

THE dutchy and city of Parma, together with the dutchies of Placentia and Guastalia, now form one of the most flourishing states in Italy of its extent. The soils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richest fruits and pasturages, and contain considerable manufactures of silk. It is the seat of a bishop's see, and a university; and some of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. This country was, some years past, the seat of a bloody war between the Austrians Spaniards and Neapolitans. The cities of

Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his Catholick majesty, on his accession to the throne of Naples, is said to have carried with him thither the most remarkable pictures and moveable curiosities. The duke's court is thought to be the politest of any in Italy, and it is said that his revenues exceed 175,000l. sterling a year, a sum rather exaggerated. The city of Parma is supposed to contain 45,000 inhabitants and the Dutchy 300,000.

MANTUA.

THE dutchy of Mantua formerly brought to its own duke 500,000 crowns a year, but is now much decayed. It is situated north of Modena. The river Po runs through it. The land produces corn, fruits, legumes, wine and flax. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milanese, in possession of the House of Austria. The capital is one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, and once contained 50,000, now about 12,000 inhabitants, who boast that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order of the emperor, in 1785, the dutchy was incorporated with that of Milan into one province, and, as before mentioned, is now to be called Austrian Lombardy. It has often changed owners during the present war.

MODENA.

The dutchy of Modena is still governed by its own duke, the head of the House of Este, from whom the family of Brunswick descended. The duke is absolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. The duke is under the protection of the House of Austria, and is a vassal of the empire. His dominions are far from being flourishing, though very improveable, they having been alternately wasted by the late belligerent powers in Europe. The city contains 30,000, and the dutchy 320,000 inhabitants; the revenue is 140,000l.

ECCLESIASTICAL STATE.

THE Ecclesiastical State, which contains Rome, formerly the celebrated capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. It extends over 13,808 square miles and contains little more than two million inhabitants. Those spots, which under the masters of the world were formed into so many terrestrial paradises, surrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious, pestilential marshes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, would afford, at present, of itself but a miserable subsistence for five hundred. Notwithstanding this, the pope is a considerable temporal prince, and his annual revenue, in former times, was supposed to have amounted to above a million sterling. This sum has diminished since the suppression of the

order of the Jesuits, from whom he drew vast supplies, and the measures taken by the Catholick powers for preventing the great ecclesiastical issues of money to Rome. The taxes upon the provisions and lodgings furnished to foreigners, who spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form the greatest part of his accidental revenues. The pope's territories and powers are now reduced to the limits which France and Austria have prescribed. Some late popes aimed at the improvement of their territories ; but their labours have had no great effect. The discouragement of industry and agriculture seems to be interwoven in the constitution of the papal government, which is vested in proud, lazy ecclesiasticks. Their indolence, and the fanaticism of their worship, infect their inferiors who prefer begging and imposing upon strangers, to industry and agriculture, especially as they must hold their properties by the precarious tenure of the will of their superiors. In short, the inhabitants of many parts of the ecclesiastical state must perish through their sloth, did not the fertility of their soil spontaneously afford them subsistence. However, it may be proper to make one general remark on Italy, which is that the poverty and sloth of the lower ranks do not take their rise from their natural dispositions.

This observation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and costly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repository of taste and magnificence. This passion disabled them from laying out money upon works of publick utility, or from encouraging the industry, or relieving the wants of their subjects ; and its miserable effects are seen in many parts of Italy. The splendour and furniture of the churches in the papal dominions exceed description, and partly account for the misery of the subjects. But this censure admits of exceptions, even in a manner at the gates of Rome.

Modern Rome contains within its circuit a vast number of gardens and vineyards. It stands upon the Tyber, an inconsiderable river when compared to the Thames, and navigated by small boats, barges and lighters. The castle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortress, would be found to be a place of small strength, were it regularly besieged. The city standing upon the ruins of ancient Rome, lies much higher, so that it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills on which it was originally built. When we consider Rome as it now stands, there is the strongest reason to believe that it exceeds ancient Rome itself in the magnificence of its structures ; nothing in the old city, when mistress of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church ; and perhaps many other churches in Rome, exceed, in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utensils and furniture, her ancient temples ; though it must be acknowledged that the pantheon must have been an amazing structure. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to 143,000. Late writers estimate them at 170,000. Mr. Pinkerton at 162,800. Bologna contains 80,000, and Ancona 20,000 inhabitants.

There is nothing very particular in the Pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes he has guards, or *sbirri*, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magistrates, both ecclesi-

astical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inspection of his holiness. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice legates. He monopolizes all the corn in his territories, and he has always a sufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. Pope Clement XIV. wisely disclaimed all intention of opposing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but those of prayers and supplications.

We have, under the head of religion, mentioned the ecclesiastical government of the papacy. As to the rota, and other subordinate chambers of this complicated jurisdiction, they are too numerous to be even named, and do not fall properly under our plan. Under a government so constituted, it cannot be supposed that the commercial exports of the ecclesiastical state are of much value.

Next to Rome Bologna, the capital of the Bolognese, is the most considerable city in the ecclesiastical state, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government is under a legate *a latere*, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more sociably and comfortably than the other subjects of the pope ; and perhaps their distance from Rome, which is 195 miles northwest, has contributed to their ease. The rest of the ecclesiastical state contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state, about the beginning of the 16th century ; but they are at present little better than desolate, though here and there a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is supported by the toil and sweat of the neighbouring peasants.

The grandeur of Ferrara, Ravenna, Rimini, Urbino, (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael) Ancona and many other states and cities, illustrious in former times, are now to be seen only in their ruins and ancient history. Loretto, on the other hand, an obscure spot never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious resort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion industriously propagated by the Roman clergy, that the house, in which the Virgin Mary is said to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumstances, such as that all the trees, on the arrival of the sacred mansion, bowed with the profoundest reverence ; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this house from being carried to other places, and exposed as relicks to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a small apartment, separated from the others by a silver balustrade, which has a gate of the same metal. It is impossible to describe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is or was loaded ; and the angels of solid gold, who are here placed on every side, are equally enriched with the most precious diamonds. To the superstition of Roman Catholick princes, Loretto is indebted for this mass of treasure. It has been matter of surprise, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks or Barbary states upon Loretto, especially as it is badly forti-

fied and stands near the sea; but it is now generally supposed, that the real treasure is withdrawn, and metals and stones of less value substituted in its place.

NAPLES AND SICILY.

THE king of Naples and Sicily, or as he is more properly called, the king of the two Sicilies, (the name of Sicily being common to both) is possessed of the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Græcia, and the island of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 square miles. The island of Sicily is 170 miles long, 70 broad, while this part of Italy exceeds 300 miles in length, by 100 in breadth. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatick, except on the northeast, where Naples terminates on the ecclesiastical state. The Appennine runs through it from north to south, and its surface is estimated at 3,500 square leagues. The air is hot, and its soil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines called Vino Greco, and Lachrymæ Christi, are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely superb, and adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the most delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Vesuvius, which sometimes threatens the city with destruction, and the insects and reptiles which infest it, some of which are venomous. The houses in Naples are inadequate to the population, but in general are five or six stories in height, and flat at the top; on which are placed numbers of flower vases, or fruit trees, in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the streets are very handsome: No street in Rome equals in beauty the Strada di Toledo at Naples; and still less can any of them be compared with those beautiful streets that lie open to the bay. The richest and most commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city; the most fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them; and a small part of their revenue is spent in feeding the poor, the monks distributing bread and soup to a certain number every day, before the doors of the convents.

Though above two thirds of the property of the kingdom is in the hands of the ecclesiasticks, the protestants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majesty presents to his holiness every year a palfry, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquisition is established in Naples. The present revenues of the king amount to about 5 millions of dollars; of which Naples raises 4 millions, and Sicily 1 million. The army consists of 25,200 men, and some say 27,840; and the navy of 25 armed ships.

The fertility of both Naples and Sicily is so great, that nature produces her gifts almost spontaneously, and little assisted by the industry of the inhabitants. In both countries the natural productions, as well as the climates, are nearly the same with those in Spain, except that the former, and more especially the island of Sicily, are much richer in corn. Naples exports annually 1,500,000 tomoli of wheat,

equal to 1,885,000 Winchester bushels ; 200,000 cassisi of oil, weighing 18lb. avoirdupois each : It is reckoned that the average amount of the exportation of oil exceeds in value 4 millions of florins. Saffron, raised in the province of Abruzzo, is exported annually to the value of 30,000 ducats, the ducat equal to 3*s.* 9*d.* Sicily exports 2,000 chests of oranges : The environs of Syracuse produce near forty different sorts of excellent wine, and 84,000cwt. of almonds, and great quantities of pistachoes peculiar to that district. Messina sends off 6000 chests of lemons, and the rest of the kingdom about as many more : 280 barrels of lemon juice, weighing ten salme each, and 27 cwt. of burgamot juice. The quantity of silk raised in the kingdom of Naples amounts to 600,000lb. and Sicily produces annually to the value of 187,000l. sterling. The latter country produces likewise manna, barilla, oil of turpentine, the sugar-cane, cotton, and many other vegetable productions of the warmer climates, which, however, are of inferior commercial importance. The mineral kingdom is remarkable for the extraordinary variety of its productions. Of metals, Naples has silver, iron, copper ; and Sicily, tin and lead ; yet excepting the marble quarries and salt, very little advantage has hitherto been derived from minerals.

The imports of Naples and Sicily consist in linen, woollens, hardware, articles of luxury, and East and West-India productions. There are but few manufactures in proportion to the riches of the soil ; and the wool raised in these kingdoms is exported to other countries. Naples is the centre of trade ; but trade and navigation is almost entirely in the hands of foreigners, The fisheries are valuable, especially those of the tunny-fish, anchovies, and corals : From the silk of the *pinna marina*, gloves are manufactured.

In this kingdom the breed of horses and of mules is very excellent and celebrated.

The king has a numerous but generally poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquises, and other high-sounding titles ; and his capital, by far the most populous in Italy, contains at least 380,000 inhabitants. Among these are about 30,000 lazaroni, or black guards, the greater part of which have no dwelling houses, but sleep every night in summer under porticoes, piazzas, or any kind of shelter they can find ; and in the winter or rainy time of the year, which lasts several weeks, the rain falling by pailfuls, they resort to the caves under Capo di Monte, where they sleep in crowds like sheep in a pinfold. Those of them who have wives and children, live in the suburbs of Naples near Pausilippo, in huts, or in caverns dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fishing, others by carrying burdens to and from the shipping ; many walk about the streets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very small recompense. As they do not meet with constant employment, their wages are not sufficient for their maintenance ; but the deficiency is in some degree supplied by the soup and bread which are distributed at the doors of the convents.

But though there is so much poverty among the lower people, there is a great appearance of wealth among some of the great. The Neapolitan nobility are excessively fond of show and splendour. This

appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richness of their dress, and the grandeur of their titles. According to a late traveller, (Mr. Swinburne) luxury of late hath advanced with gigantick strides in Naples. Forty years ago the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribands on their heads, as the Spanish women do to this day, and not twenty of them were possessed of a cap; but hair plainly dressed is a mode now confined to the lowest order of inhabitants, and all distinction of dress between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid aside. Expense and extravagance are here in the extreme.

Through every spot of the kingdom of Naples the traveller may be said to tread on classick ground; and no country presents the eye with more beautiful prospects. There are still traces of the memorable town of Cannæ, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under ground granaries; and the scene of action between Hannibal and the Romans is still marked out to posterity by the name of *pezzo di sangue*, "field of blood." Taranto, a city that was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little else than its fisheries. Sorento is a city placed on the brink of steep rocks, that overhang the bay, and of all the places in the kingdom, hath the most delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatre, and as the place where Augustus Cæsar died, is now hardly worth observation.

Brundusium, now Brindisi, was the great supplier of oysters for the Roman tables. It has a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a state of inactivity and poverty, from which it has not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boast of so many remains of ancient sculpture as Benevento. Here the arch of Trajan one of the most magnificent remains of Roman grandeur out of Rome, erected in the year 114, is still in tolerable preservation. Reggio hath nothing remarkable but a Gothick cathedral. It was destroyed by an earthquake before the Marcian war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæsar; part of the wall still remains, and was very roughly handled by the earthquake in 1783, but not destroyed: Only 126 lost their lives out of 10,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, and the greatest force thereof seems to have been exerted near that spot, and at Casal Nuova and Terra Nuova. From Tropea to Squillace, most of the towns and villages were either totally, or in part, overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins. To ascertain the extent of the ravages, Sir William Hamilton, who surveyed it, gives the following description: "If on the map of Italy, and with your compasses on the scale of Italian miles, you were to measure off 22, and then, fixing your central point in the city of Oppido, (which appeared to me to be the spot on which the earthquake had exerted its greatest force) form a circle, (the radii of which will be, as I just said, 22 miles) you will then include all the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined, and the spots where the greatest mortality has happened, and where there have been the most visible alterations on the face of the earth. Then extend your compass on the same scale to 72 miles,

preserving the same centre, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been affected by the earthquake."

Naples is a fief of the holy see, and a trifling annual tribute is paid in acknowledgment of the pope's rights; yet the dependence of the king, who is *legatus natus* of the see of Rome, on his feudal lord, is merely nominal. The country swarms with priests and lawyers. The ecclesiasticks are computed at 200,000, who are said to possess half the land. The whole population is supposed to be 6,000,000. [*Pinkerton.*]

The government is monarchical but not quite absolute; for though the king's power is very great, the states have preserved the right of meeting every other year in order to grant subsidies, or a don gratuit to the king. This assembly is called a parliament; it is composed of deputies from the nobility, the order of citizens, and of the prelates who are possessed of baronies. Royal edicts, before they acquire the force of laws, must be registered by another assembly of the nobility and the order of citizens; it consists of six *seggi*, or wards, five of which are governed by a committee of nobles; the last belongs exclusively to the plebeians, and is governed by six eletti, who are likewise the chief civil magistrates of the city of Naples. Naples is the capital, the most beautiful city in the world, except Constantinople; Palermo in Sicily is said to contain 130,000, Bari, 30,000, and Catania 26,000 inhabitants. [*Pinkerton.*]

The island of Sicily, once the granary of the world for corn, is less cultivated and less productive of that article than formerly. Both the ancients and moderns have maintained, that this island was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually separated from it by the encroachments of the sea, and the shocks of earthquakes, so as to become a perfect island. The climate of Sicily is so hot, that even in the beginning of January the shade is refreshing; and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March. The only appearance of winter is found towards the summit of Mount Ætna, where snow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preserving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations are extremely numerous here; the buildings are handsome, and the revenues considerable. If this island were better cultivated, and its government more equitable, it would in many respects be a delightful place of residence. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this island are remarkable for the beauty of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal streets, and which cross each other, are very fine. This is said to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at night at the publick expense. It carries on a considerable trade; as also did Messina, which, before the earthquake in 1783, was a large and well built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant structures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower district of the city and of the port was destroyed, and considerable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the *Palazzata*, in the shape of a crescent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Messina or

Reggio, to what it was in the plain; for of 30,000, the supposed population of the city, only 700 are said to have perished. The greatest mortality fell upon those towns and countries situated in the plain of Calabria Ultra, on the western side of the mountains Dejo, Sacro and Caulone. At Casal Nuova, the princess Gerace, and upwards of 4,000 of the inhabitants, lost their lives; at Bagnara, the number of dead amounts to 3,017; Radicina and Palmi count their loss at about 3,000 each; Terra Nuova about 1,400; Seminari still more. The sum total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the secretary of state's office at Naples, is 32,367: But Sir William Hamilton says he has good reason to believe, that, including strangers, the number of lives lost must have been considerably greater; 40,000 at least may be allowed, he believes, without exaggeration.

Spallanzani has explained the noted wonders of Scylla and Charybdis; the former being a lofty rock on the Calabrian shore, with some caverns at the bottom, which, by the agitation of the waves, emit sounds resembling the barking of dogs. The only danger is when the current and winds are in opposition, so that vessels are impelled towards the rock. Charybdis is not a whirlpool, or involving vortex, but a spot where the waves are greatly agitated by pointed rocks, and the depth does not exceed 500 feet.

In Sicily the states have likewise a share in government, by the right which they possess of granting subsidies to the crown. They are composed of three classes, or *bracci*, the nobility or military class, the clergy, and the royal demesne lands, viz. 42 royal towns.

The great state officers are nominated by the king; the highest department of government is the state council, composed of four ministers or secretaries of state. Next to this council is that called *consignio collaterale*, and several departments for particular branches of publick business. Sicily is governed by a viceroy. The late king has published a new code of laws, called Codex Carolinus; yet, notwithstanding the improvements it contains, the proceedings of justice in this country are still very dilatory. It is said there are not less than 30,000 lawyers at Naples. [*Swinburne.*] In some parts of the kingdom the possessors of large estates have a territorial jurisdiction, in others the king; from the provincial courts appeals may be made to the *Gran Corte della Vicaria;* and, in the last instance, to the Supreme Court of Appeal at Naples.

The present government seems to have the welfare of the country more at heart than any former. There are, in Naples and Sicily, four universities, viz. those of Naples, Salerno, Palermo, and Catania, of which the first is the most useful. At the capital there is likewise an academy of sciences, and magnificent collections of antiquities. Naples has long been the principal and favourite seat of musick. Education is greatly neglected; the schools are still in the hands of monks, whose interest it is that superstition and ignorance should prevail, and who are the greatest enemies to the liberty of thinking and writing.

The island of Sardinia, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles west of Leghorn, and hath seven cities or

towns. Its capital, Cagliari, has a university, an archbishoprick, and the seat of the viceroy, containing about 24,000 inhabitants. It is thought his Sardinian majesty's revenues from this island do not exceed 5,000l. sterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery. Its air is bad, from its marshes and high mountains on the north, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and in 1719 to the House of Savoy, and is now governed by a viceroy.

Capri, the ancient Caprea, is an island to which Augustus Cæsar often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a scene of the most infamous pleasures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects farthest into the sea. It extends four miles in length from east to west, and about one in breadth. The western part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vastly high, and inaccessible next the sea; yet Ano Capri, the largest town of the island, is situated here; and in this part are several places covered with a very fruitful soil. The eastern end of the island also rises up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite so long as the western. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a slip of lower ground that runs across the island, and is one of the pleasantest spots that can easily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards and corn-fields, which look extremely fresh and beautiful, and afford a most delightful little landscape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is situated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and the bishop's palace. In the midst of this fertile tract rises a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, some remains of which are still to be seen. But the most considerable ruins are at the very extremity of the eastern promontory.

From this place there is a very noble prospect: On one side of it the sea extends farther than the eye can reach; just opposite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other side the bay of Naples.

Ischia, and some other islands on the coasts of Naples and Italy, have nothing to distinguish them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful summer retreats for their owners. Elba has been renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of history. Virgil and Aristotle mention it. Its situation is about ten miles S. W. from Tuscany, and 80 miles in circumference, containing near 7000 inhabitants; it is divided between the king of Naples (to whom Porto Longone belongs) and the great duke of Tuscany, who is master of Forto, Ferraio, and the prince of Piombino. The fruits and wine of the island are very good, and the tunnery, fishery and salt, produce a good revenue.

I shall here mention the isle of Malta, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian islands. It was formerly called Melita, and is situated in 15° E. lon. and 45° N. lat. 60 miles south of Cape Passaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, about 50 miles in circumference, and is supposed to contain 60,000 inhabitants. [*Pinkerton.*] Its air is clear, but excessively hot: The whole island seems to be a

White rock, covered with a thin surface of earth, which is, however, amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables, and garden stuffs of all kinds. This island, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes; under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors: They have since been known by the distinction of the Knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chastity. They have considerable possessions in the Roman Catholick countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand master, who is elected for life. The lord-prior of the order, was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The knights are in number 1000: 500 are to reside on the island; the remainder are in their seminaries in other countries, but at any summons are to make a personal appearance. They had a seminary in England, till it was suppressed by Henry VIII.

When the great master dies, they suffer no vessel to go out of the island till another is chosen, to prevent the pope from interfering in the election. Out of the 16 great crosses, the great master is elected, whose title is, "The most illustrious, and most reverend prince, the lord friar A. B. great master of the hospital of St. John of Jerusalem, prince of Malta and Gaza." All the knights are sworn to defend the church, to obey their superiors, and to live on the revenues of their order only. Not only their chief town Valetta, or Malta, and its harbour, but their whole island is so well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable. On the 8th of September there is an annual procession at Malta, in memory of the Turks raising the siege on that day, 1663, after four months assault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind. This island was taken by the French in 1798, and has since fallen into the hands of the British to whom it now belongs.

The island of Gozo is about half the extent of Malta; is rather fertile, and contains about 3000 inhabitants.

Such generally, was the situation of the Italian States in 1787. But the French, in the fervour of revolutionary frenzy penetrated across the barriers of Italy. The king of Sardinia became from their enemy, first their humble ally, and afterwards a fugitive before their arms. All the Austrian dominions received their yoke. They formed a Cisalpine Republick. They made themselves fraudfully masters of Rome; then sacked and pillaged it. They conquered Naples; they threatened Tuscany: But the joint arms of Russia and Austria for a time prevailed. Rome was retaken; the Cisalpine Republick was abolished, and the French driven within their own territories.

The tide has since turned in favour of the French Republick; and the battle of Maringo, has again subjected Italy to the power of France.

SWITZERLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 200 } between { 6° and 11° east longitude.
Breadth 130 } { 46° and 48° north latitude.

Square miles 14,960.

Boundaries.] IT is bounded by Alsace and Suabia, in Germany, on the north; by the lake of Constance, Tirol and Trent, on the east; by Italy, on the south; and by France, on the west.

Divisions.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, which stand, in point of precedency, as follows:

Cantons.	Religion.	Population in 1793.	Chief Towns and Inhabitants.
1 Zurich	Reformed	175,000 Coxe 167,564 Meiners	Zurich 11,500
2 Berne	Do.	400,000 Wyttenback	Berne 10,500
3 Lucerne	Catholick	100,000	Lucerne 5,000
4 Uri	Do.	28,000	Altdorf
5 Switz	Do.	30,000	Switz
6 Underwald	Do.	18,000	Sarnen
7 Zug	Do.	16,000	Zug
8 Glaris	Catholick & Reformed	18,000	Glaris
9 Basil, or Basle	Reformed	38,000	Basle 15,000
10 Fribourg	Catholick	73,000	Fribourg 6,000
11 Soleure	Do.	45,000	Soleure
12 Schaffhause	Reformed	23,000	Schaffhause, 1,600
13 Appenzell	Reformed & Catholick	56,000	Appenzell
	Total,	1,020,000	

SUBJECTS OF THE SWISS.

	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calvinists and Catholicks.	Baden, Bremgarten, Mellingen	216	26	12	Baden, Bremgarten, Mellingen
	Rheinthal	40	20	5	Rheineck
	Thurgau	119	18	11	Frowanfield
	Lugano, Locarno, Mendris, Maggia	859	52	30	Lugano, Locarno, Mendris, Maggia

SWISS ALLIES.

	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calvinists.	Grisons	2,270	100	62	Coire
Subjects of the Grisons, Calvinists & Cath.	Chiavanna	472	42	34	Chiavanna
	Bormio and Valteline	360	27	19	Sondrio
Calvinists.	Tockenburg	168	27	8	Liechtensteg
	Geneva	160	13	11	Geneva
	Neuchatel	320	32	20	Neuchatel
Catholicks.	Valais	1,287	80	30	Sion
	Basle	270	13	16	Delsperg
	St. Gall	144	20	10	St. Gall.
	Bienne				

Mulhause in Alsace is also united to them.

The number of inhabitants in the several cantons of Switzerland is taken from Reichard.

The following concise particular descriptions of the several cantons* contain much valuable information, and form a proper introduction to the *general* account which succeeds.

ZURICH. This canton contains 150,000† inhabitants upon an area of 40 miles by 30; abounds with corn, wine, and all the ordinary productions of excellent pastures. Literature has been encouraged, and has constantly flourished in this country, from the time of Zuinglius to that of Gesner and Lavater. The inhabitants are industrious, their manufactures considerable, and their commerce extensive. In the city is a publick granary, an admirable resource against scarcity, and a magnificent arsenal well filled with cannon, arms and ammunition, particularly muskets for 30,000 men—the armour of the old Swiss warriors, and the bow and arrow with which William Tell shot the apple on the head of his son—

> Who with the generous rusticks sate
> On Uri's rock, in close divan,
> And wing'd that arrow sure as fate
> Which fix'd the sacred rights of man.

There are not more than 2,000 *citizens* out of 150,000 inhabitants. There is not a carriage in the town, except it be of a stranger. Zurich has great influence in the general diet, derived from her reputation for integrity and independent spirit.

BERNE. This canton contains 72 bailiwicks, distributed in four classes, comprehending a country of 60 leagues in length, or a third part of all Switzerland, subject to the city of Berne. The bailiffs are appointed by lot from the grand council: They live in much splendour, and are able to lay up two or three thousand pounds ster-

* Extracted from "A Defence of the Constitutions of Government of the United States of America," by John Adams, L. L. D. late President of the United States.

† This was their number in 1786. They have since increased, according to Mr. Coxe, to 175,000.

ling a year, besides discharging all their expenses. They represent the sovereign authority; put the laws in execution; collect the revenues; act as judges in civil and criminal causes; but an appeal lies to Berne.

There is no standing army, but every male of 16 is enrolled in the militia, and obliged to provide himself a uniform, a musket, powder and ball; and no peasant is allowed to marry, without producing his arms and uniform. There are arsenals of arms at Berne, and in every bailiwick, sufficient for the militia of the district, and a sum of money for three months pay. There is a political seminary for the youth, called the exterior state, which is a miniature of the whole government. The young men assemble and go through all the forms; they have their grand council, senate, &c. They debate upon political subjects, and thus improve their talents by exercise, and become more capable of serving the publick in future life. The nobility in this country are haughty.

Lucerne comprehends a country of 16 leagues long and 8 wide, containing 15 bailiwicks, besides several cities, abbeys, monasteries, seigniories, &c. The inhabitants are almost wholly engaged in agriculture, and the exportation of their produce. Their commerce might be greatly augmented, as the river Reuss issues from the lake, passes through the town, and falls into the Rhine. The city has no manufactures, little trade, and no encouragement for learning.

Soleure is 12 leagues in length, and 7 in breadth. The citizens of this canton are divided into 11 tribes for the purpose of electing officers of government. The soil is extremely fertile, yet there is a want of hands for agriculture, and population decreases;* although commodiously situated for commerce, they have none. There is an arsenal here, like that at Berne, stored with arms in proportion to the number of inhabitants in the canton, and ornamented with the trophies of the valour of their ancestors. This canton has a large country subject to it, comprehending 11 bailiwicks.

Fribourg produces good pasture, some corn, and little wine; it has no commerce, and not much literature. It has more troops in foreign service than any other canton in proportion. As the rivers and lakes have a direct communication with the sea, the inhabitants might have a valuable commerce; but as none of the persons concerned in government can be merchants, no commerce can be in fashion, except that of their noble blood to foreign sovereigns. It is no doubt much to the honour of their fidelity and valour to be chosen so generally to be the life-guards of princes; but whether they can vindicate such a traffick, upon principles of justice, humanity, or policy, or from the imputation of a more mercenary spirit than that of ordinary commerce, is for them to consider. In this canton, containing 60,000 souls, not more than 40 families have any part in the government. These all live very *nobly*; that is to say, without commerce, trades or manufactures.

* In 1786, according to Mr. Adams, this canton contained 50,000 souls—in 1792, according to Reichard, it contained but 45,000.

The forementioned cantons, with SCHAFFHAUSE, (22 miles in length and 10 in breadth, producing wine, fish, wood, flax, horses, sheep, wool, black cattle, and deer) are aristocratical republicks.

APPENZELL consists of a series of vallies, scattered among inaccessible rocks and mountains, in all about 18 miles square. The people are laborious and frugal, and have no commerce but in cattle, hides, butter, cheese, and a little linen made of their own flax. It has no walled towns, and only two or three open boroughs, and a few small villages. It is like New-England, almost a continued village, covered with excellent houses of the yeomanry, built of wood, each having its territory of pasture grounds, commonly ornamented with trees; neatness is studied without and remarkable cleanliness within. The principal part of the inhabitants have preserved the simplicity of the pastoral life. It is not at all surprising among so much freedom, though among flocks and herds, to hear of literature, and men of letters, who are an ornament to their country.

UNDERWALD, twenty-five miles in length, and seventeen in breadth, is divided into the *upper* and *lower* by a large forest of oaks, which, runs nearly in the middle of their country from north to south. The valley, or lower division below the forest, contains four communities; the upper, six. The capital is Sarnen. The inhabitants are graziers.

GLARIS is a mountainous country of 24 miles long, and from 12 to 18 wide. Its commerce is in cheese, cattle, linen and thread. Ten thousand cattle, and 4,000 sheep, pastured in summer upon the mountains, constitute their wealth. The inhabitants live together in a general equality, and most perfect harmony; even Catholicks and Protestants sometimes perform divine service in the same church, one after the other! and all the offices of state are indifferently administered by both parties, though the Protestants are more in number, and superior both in industry and commerce. All the houses are built of wood large and solid, those of the richest inhabitants differing only from those of the poorer, as they are larger. The police is well regulated here, as it is throughout Switzerland. Liberty does not degenerate into licentiousness. Liberty, independence and exemption from taxes, amply compensate for a want of the refinements of luxury. There are none so rich as to gain the ascendency by largesses. If they err in their councils, it is an error of the judgment, and not of the heart. As there is no fear of invasion, and they have no conquests to make, their policy consists in maintaining their independence and preserving their publick tranquillity. As the end of government is the greatest happiness of the greatest number, saving at the same time the stipulated rights of all, governments like these, where a large share of power is preserved by the people, deserve to be admired and imitated. It is in such governments that human nature appears in its dignity, *honest*, *brave* and *generous*.

ZUG is a small but rich canton, composed of mountains and plains, divided into five portions, for governmental purposes; the city of Zug contains two of these portions, and the country three, Mentzingen, Egeri and Bar. The government is very complicated.

URI has the honour of being the place of the birth and residence of William Tell. This canton shook off the yoke of Austria in 1308,

and with Switz and Underwald, laid the foundation of the perpetual alliance of the cantons, in 1315. The canton consists only of villages, and little towns or Bourgades, and the whole is divided into ten inferiour communities. It has no city. Altdorf, where the general assemblies are held, and the regency resides, is the principal village.

The valley of *Urseren*, 3 leagues in length and 1 in breadth, marches under the banner of *Uri*; but it is but an ally, connected by treaty in 1410

The village of *Gersaw* is six miles long and three broad, containing about 1000 inhabitants. This is the smallest republick in Europe: It has its land amman, its council of regency, its general assembly of burgesses, and its courts of justice and militia; although it is said there is not a single horse in the whole empire. Such a diminutive republick, in an obscure corner, and unknown, is interesting to Americans, not only because every spot of earth, on which civil liberty flourishes deserves their esteem, but as it shows the impossibility of erecting even the smallest government among the poorest people, without different orders, councils and balances.

Switz has the honour of giving the name to the whole confederation, because the first battle for independency was fought there: It consists only of villages, divided into six quarters, the first of which is Switz, where the ordinary regency of the country resides.

These six cantons, together with Basil or Basle, are democratical republicks.

Air, Climate, Soil and Face of the Country.] This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps, (which form an amphitheatre of more than 100 miles) the frosts are consequently bitter in winter, the hills being covered with snow sometimes all the year. In summer the inequality of the soil renders the same province very unequal in its seasons; on one side of those mountains the inhabitants are often reaping while they are sowing on another. The vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, and well cultivated, and nothing can be more delightful than the summer months in this charming country. It is subject to rains and tempests; for which reason publick granaries are every where erected to supply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often descends from the mountains in large or small cataracts, which have a delightful effect.

There is, perhaps, no country in the world wherein the advantageous effects of unwearied and persevering industry are more remarkably conspicuous than in Switzerland. In passing over the mountainous parts of it, the traveller is struck with admiration, to observe rocks that were formerly barren, now planted with vines, or abounding with rich pasture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the sides of precipices so steep, that a horse could not even ascend them without great difficulty. In short, the inhabitants seem to have surmounted every obstruction which soil, situation and climate had thrown in their way, and to have spread fertility over various spots of the country, which nature seemed to have consigned to everlasting barrenness. The feet of the mountains, and sometimes also

the very summits, are covered with vineyards, corn fields, meadows, and pasture grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, consisting almost entirely of barren and inaccessible rocks, some of which are continually covered with snow or ice. The vallies between these icy and snowy mountains appear like so many smooth frozen lakes, and from them vast fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful spots beneath. In some parts, there is a regular gradation from extreme wildness, to high cultivation; in others, the transitions are very abrupt and very striking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with wood, and studded all over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, pastures, which appear suspended in the air, exhibit the most delightful landscape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and snow. "Behold our walls and bulwarks," said a Swiss peasant, pointing to the mountains, "Constantinople is not so strongly fortified." In short Switzerland abounds with the most picturesque scenes; and here are to be found some of the most sublime exhibitions of nature, in her most awful and tremendous forms.

Glaciers.] No subject in natural history is more curious than the origin of these glaciers, which are immense fields of ice. If a person could be conveyed to such an elevation, as to embrace, at one view, the Alps of Switzerland, Savoy and Dauphine, he would behold a vast assemblage of mountains, intersected by numerous vallies, and composed of many parallel branches, the highest occupying the centre, and others gradually diminishing, in proportion to their distance from that centre.

The most elevated, or central range, would appear bristled with pointed rocks, and covered, even in summer, with ice and snow, in all parts that are not absolutely perpendicular. On each side, he would discover deep vallies clothed with verdure, abounding with numerous villages, and watered by many rivers. In considering these objects with greater attention, he would remark, that the central chain is composed of elevated peaks and ridges, whose summits are overspread with snow; that the declivities of the peaks and ridges, excepting those parts that are extremely steep, are covered with snow and ice; and that the intermediate depths and spaces between them are filled with immense fields of ice, terminating in cultivated vallies.

These immense fields of ice usually rest on an inclined plane; being pushed forward by the pressure of their own weight, and but weakly supported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are intersected by large transverse crevices; and present the appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantastick shapes observed at all heights, and in all situations, wherever the declivity is beyond thirty or forty degrees.

Bourrit gives the following description of the glacier of the Rhone. "At length we perceived through the trees a mountain of ice as splendid as the sun, and flashing a similar light on the environs. This first aspect of the glacier of the Rhone inspired us with great expectation. A moment afterwards this enormous mass of ice hav-

ing disappeared behind thick pines, soon after met our sight between two vast blocks of rock, which formed a kind of portico. Surprised at the magnificence of this spectacle, and at its admirable contrasts, we beheld it with rapture. At length we reached this beautiful portico, beyond which we were to discover all the glacier. We arrived; at this sight one would suppose one's self in another world, so much is the imagination impressed with the nature and immensity of the objects. To form an idea of this superb spectacle, figure in your mind a scaffolding of transparent ice, filling a space of two miles, rising to the clouds and darting flashes of light like the sun. Nor were the several parts less magnificent and surprising. One might see, as it were, the streets and buildings of a city, erected in the form of an amphitheatre, and embellished with pieces of water, cascades and torrents. The effects were as prodigious as the immensity and the height; the most beautiful azure, the most splendid white, the regular appearance of a thousand pyramids of ice, are more easy to be imagined than described. Such is the aspect of the glacier of the Rhone, reared by nature on a plan which she alone can execute: we admire the majestick course of a river, without suspecting that what gives it birth and maintains its waters may be still more majestick and magnificent." He afterwards describes the river, as issuing from a vault of ice, as transparent as crystal; and illuminated by streams of sunshine, darting through apertures in the roof.

Mr. Coxe describes the method of travelling over these glaciers. His party had each of them a long pole spiked with iron; and, to secure them from slipping, the guides fastened to their feet small bars of iron, having four small spikes. The difficulty of crossing these vallies of ice, arises from the immense chasms. They rolled down large stones into several of them; and the great length of time before these reached the bottom gave some conception of their depth: which, in some places, is not less than five hundred feet. Such a body of ice, broken into irregular ridges and deep chasms, resembles a lake instantly frozen in the midst of a violent storm.

In speaking of an unsuccessful attempt of some gentlemen to reach the top of Mont Blanc, he presents to his readers a most horrid image of the danger of these chasms. "As they were returning in great haste, (owing to the day being far spent) one of the party slipped, in attempting to leap over a chasm of ice. He held in his hand a long pole, spiked with iron, which he struck into the ice, and upon this he hung dreadfully suspended for a few moments, till he was relieved by his companions."

Mountains.] Mont Blanc, or the White Mountain, is distinguished by having its summits and sides clothed with snow, almost without the intervention of the least rock to break the glare of the *white* appearance. Mr. De Luc estimates the height of this mountain, above the level of the sea, at two thousand three hundred and ninety-one and one third French toises, or fifteen thousand three hundred and four English feet. Sir George Shuckburgh states, it at fifteen thousand six hundred and sixty-two feet, which gives a difference of only three hundred and fifty-eight feet. The Peak of Teneriffe has been

frequently supposed the highest land of the old hemisphere. Mont Blanc is of much more considerable elevation.

This mountain is above the level of the sea, by Sir George Shuckburgh's mensuration,	Feet. 15,662
The Peak of Teneriffe, according to Feuille,	13,248
Ætna, according to Sir George Shuckburgh,	10,954
Canigou, the highest of the Pyrenees,	9,222
Ben-nevis, the highest mountain in Scotland,	4,387
Vesuvius, according to M. de Saussure,	3,900
Snowden, in Wales,	3,555
Chimborazo,	20,280

The summit of Mont Blanc was deemed inaccessible, till Dr. Pacard, in 1786, ascended it. The same journey was soon after undertaken by M. de Saussure, of Geneva, on the first of August, 1787. He set out, accompanied by a servant and eighteen guides, to carry a tent, provisions, instruments, &c. M. de Saussure passed the first night at the top of the mountain of la Cote, situated to the south of the priory; and seven hundred and seventy-nine toises above the village. To this place, there is no trouble or danger; the ascent is either on turf or on rock; and it is easily accomplished in five or six hours.

On the second day, the glacier of la Cote is to be passed, which is crossed by wide, deep and irregular crevices. These frequently cannot be passed, but over bridges of snow, sometimes very slight, and suspended over deep abysses. A guide narrowly escaped perishing in one of these. He went in the evening, with two others, to reconnoitre the passage. Fortunately they had taken the precaution of fastening themselves together with cords. The snow gave way in the middle of a wide deep crevice, wherein the man was suspended between his two companions. At four o'clock in the afternoon of the second day, M. de Saussure's party again encamped, one thousand four hundred and fifty-five toises above the priory, one thousand nine hundred and ninety-five above the sea, ninety toises higher than the Peak of Teneriffe. Here they soon felt the rarity of the air. The barometer was down to 17 inches 10 lines $\frac{2}{10}$. Those hardy men, to whom the march of seven or eight hours, which they had just made, was no sort of fatigue, had scarcely thrown up five or six spadefuls of snow, to prepare for fixing the tent, before they were utterly unable to proceed, without resting every moment. Saussure himself was quite exhausted with fatigue, only in observing with his meteorological instruments. They were troubled with an incessant thirst, which they had no means of allaying, but by melting the snow. From the midst of this plain, enclosed in part by the highest summit of Mont Blanc, scarcely any thing is to be seen but snow, pure, and of a dazzling whiteness, forming on the highest pikes, a most singular contrast with the almost black sky of those elevated regions. No living creature is to be seen; no appearance of vegetation. It is the abode of cold and silence.

The guides, fearful of cold, closed the openings of the tent carefully; but Saussure suffered so much from heat, and want of fresh air,

that he went out during the night, in order to breathe. He found the moon shining with astonishing brightness, in the midst of an ebon sky, whilst Jupiter shone equally bright from behind the loftiest pike to the east of Mont Blanc. As soon as it was light, they found the thermometer three degrees below the freezing point. On the third day, at about eleven o'clock, they safely arrived at the summit. There is no plain; but it is a long ridge nearly horizontal, in a direction from east to west. This ridge is so narrow, that two persons cannot walk abreast on it; especially at the west end, where it resembles the roof of a house. In this state of awful elevation, as M. de Saussure was putting his instruments in order, to observe with them, he was obliged every moment to interrupt his observations, in order to take breath. The barometer was, on the summit, down to 16 inches one line, so that the air was only of about half the common density. It was thence necessary to supply the defect of density by more frequent inspirations. This accelerated the motion of the blood, and the more, because the arteries no longer sustained their ordinary pressure, insomuch, that the party were all in a fever. Saussure continued upon the summit of Mont Blanc till half an hour past three in the afternoon, during which time he carefully made some curious experiments. They all returned safe with their eyes and faces uninjured, which was owing to the precaution of having put black crape over their faces. Others, who had gone up before them, returned almost blind, and with their skin terribly burnt by the reflection of the snow.

Rivers and Lakes.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, which rises in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gothard; the Aar has its source in the mountain of Grinsel, but there is another branch from the terrible summit of Schrakhorn, after receiving the Reuss and Limmat; it unites with the Rhine opposite to Waldshut after a course of 150 miles.

The Reuss divides Switzerland into two almost equal parts. Its sound is in Lake Lucendro on the N. W. of St. Gothard.

The Limmat is composed of two streams, the Linth and Mat. Ten miles after their junction it enters the lake of Zurich, whence it runs 20 miles, and falls into the Aar. On the banks of the Limmat commenced the dreadful battle of the French against the Austrians and Russians which extended down the Reuss, the line of battle being 90 miles, when for 15 days the whole country seemed to be enveloped in smoke and fire, Suwarrow was defeated. The Rhone is a noble stream; the Thur is a branch of the Rhine.

The lakes of Switzerland are numerous and interesting. Constance is on the N. E. confines of the country, 45 miles long and in some places 15 broad. Geneva is on the S. W. part of the territory, in the form of a crescent, 40 miles long, and 9 in its broadest part.

The lakes of Neufchatel and Zurich are each about 25 miles long, and 4 broad. Lucerne is about 15 long, and no where more than 3 broad. Among the other lakes are Lugano, Thur, Brientz, Joux, and Rouso; also Bienne, Sempach, Zug and Wallenstadt with many more of inferior note.

Metals and Minerals.] The mountains contain mines of iron, crystal, virgin sulphur, and springs of mineral waters.

Vegetable and animal productions.] Switzerland produces sheep and cattle, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax and hemp; plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and chesnuts: The parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons and pomegranates; and most of the cantons abound in timber. Besides game, fish and fowl, are also found in some of the higher and more inaccessible parts of the Alps, the bouquetine and the chamois, whose activity in scouring along the steep and scraggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices is hardly conceivable. The blood of both these animals is of so hot a nature, that the inhabitants of some of these mountains, who are very subject to pleurisies, take a few drops of it mixed with water, as a remedy for that disorder. The flesh of the chamois is esteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewise found a species of hares, which in summer is said perfectly to resemble other hares, but in winter becomes all over white, so that they are scarcely distinguishable among the snow. But this idea hath been lately exploded, nor is it certain whether the two species ever couple together. The white hare seldom quits his rocky residence. Here are also yellow and white foxes, which in winter sometimes come down into the vallies.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs and Diversions.] According to the best accounts, the cantons of Switzerland, including their subjects and allies, contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, industrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general simplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankness, together with an invincible spirit of freedom, are the most distinguishing characteristicks of the inhabitants of Switzerland. A very striking proof of the honesty of this people, is mentioned by Mr. Coxe, who says, upon the authority of general Pfiffer, that on each side of the road that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Switz, there are several ranges of small shops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked. Any passengers, who wish to become purchasers, enter the shops, take away the merchandize, and deposite the price, which the owners come for in the evening. They are in general a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the same rank of men in most other countries; a taste for literature is very prevalent among those who are in better circumstances, and even amongst many of the lower rank; and a genuine and unartful good breeding is very conspicuous in the Swiss gentry. On the first entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but observe the air of content and satisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanliness of the houses, and of the people, is peculiarly striking; and in all their manners, behaviour and dress, some strong outlines may be traced, which distinguish this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppressions of despotick government. Even the Swiss cottages convey the liveliest image of cleanliness, ease and simplicity, and cannot but strongly impress upon the observer a most pleasing conviction of the peasant's happiness. In some of the can-

tons, each cottage has its little territory, consisting generally of a field or two of fine pasture ground, and frequently skirted with trees, and well supplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in most parts of Switzerland; and no dancing is allowed, except upon particular occasions. Silk, lace and several other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in some of the cantons; and even the head-dresses of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are also strictly prohibited; and in other games, the party who loses above six florins, which is about nine shillings of our money, incurs a considerable fine. Their diversions, therefore, are chiefly of the active and warlike kind; and as their time is not wasted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leisure hours in reading, to the great improvement of their understandings. The youth are diligently trained to all the martial exercises, such as running, wrestling, throwing the hammer and shooting both with the cross-bow and musket. They are distinguished for their attachment to their country; there, after all their wandering for a livelihood, they wish to return to spend their last days. When in foreign countries, a small circumstance has been known to rouse all their ardour for home. Hence in the French armies formerly was interdicted the tune called Rance des Vaches, sung by the young women of Switzerland. So strong was their connections of ideas, so impassioned their love of their native country, so lively the imaginations of the Swiss soldiers, that when they heard these notes, their manly cheeks were bathed in tears, they realized all the felicity of their youthful days, they deserted their colours to repeat those pleasures in their native dwellings.

Goiters and Idiots.] The inhabitants, in one part of this country, particularly in the republick of Valais are very much subject to goiters, or large excrescences of flesh that grow from the throat, and often increase to a great size. But what is more extraordinary, idiotism also remarkably abounds among them. "I saw," says Mr. Coxe, "many instances of both kinds, as I passed through Sion. Some idiots were basking in the sun with their tongues out, and their heads hanging down, exhibiting the most affecting spectacle of intellectual imbecility that can possibly be conceived. The causes which produce a frequency of these phenomena, in this country, form a very curious question."

Religion.] Though all the Swiss cantons form but one political republick, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Those differences in religion formerly created many republican commotions, which seem now to have subsided. Zuinglius was the apostle of Protestantism in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few speculative points; so that Calvinism is said to be the religion of the Protestant Swiss. But this must be understood chiefly with respect to the mode of church government; for in some doctrinal points they are far from being universally Calvinistical. There is, however, too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and though they are ardently attached to the interests of civil liberty, their sentiments on the subject of religious toleration are, in general, much less liberal.

Language.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the most common is German. The Swiss who border upon France speak a bastard French, as those near Italy do a corrupted Latin or Italian.

Learning and learned Men.] Calvin, whose name is so well known in all protestant countries, instituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high esteem by the most learned of that country. The ingenious and eloquent, but deistical J. J. Rousseau, too, whose works the present age have received with too much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rousseau gave a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a prose writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the *Devin du Village*, in particular, is much esteemed. M. Bonnet, and Messrs. de Saussure, De Luc, De Lolme, the Marquis Beccaria and Lavater, also deserve to be mentioned with applause, and will be remembered till the Alps shall be no more.

Universities.] The University of Basil, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious physick garden, which contains the choicest exoticks; and adjoining to the library, which contains some valuable manuscripts, is a museum well furnished with natural and artificial curiosities, and with a great number of medals or paintings. In the cabinets of Erasmus and Amerbach, which also belong to this university, there are no less than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, representing the death of our blessed Saviour, a thousand ducats have been offered. The other universities, which indeed are commonly only styled colleges, are those of Berne, Lausanne, and Zurich.

Antiquities and Curiosities, natural and artificial.] Every district of a canton in this mountainous country presents the traveller with a natural curiosity; sometimes in the shape of wild but beautiful prospects, interspersed with lofty buildings, and wonderful hermitages, especially one, two leagues from Fribourg. This was formed by the hands of a single hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years, and was living in 1709. It is the greatest curiosity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour, 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, and ceiling, all cut out of the rock.

At Schaffhause is a bridge over the Rhine, justly admired for the singularity of its architecture. The river is extremely rapid, and had already destroyed several stone bridges of the strongest construction, when a carpenter of Appenzell offered to throw a wooden bridge, of a single arch, across the river, which is near four hundred feet wide. The magistrates required that it should consist of two arches, and that he should, for that purpose, employ the middle pier of the old bridge. Accordingly, the architect was obliged to obey; but he has contrived to leave it a matter of doubt, whether the bridge is supported by the middle pier, and whether it would not have been equally safe if formed solely of one arch. The sides and top are covered, and it is what the Germans call a hanging bridge.

The road, which is almost level, is not carried, as usual, over the top of the arch; but if the expression may be allowed, is let into the middle of it, and there suspended. A man of the slightest weight feels it almost tremble under him; yet waggons, heavily laden, pass over without danger. It has been compared to a tight rope, which trembles when struck, but still preserves its firm and equal tension. On considering the greatness of the plan, and the boldness of the construction, it is matter of astonishment, that the architect was originally a carpenter, without the least tincture of literature, totally ignorant of mathematicks, and not versed in the theory of mechanicks. His name was Ulrick Grubenman. The bridge was finished in less than three years, and cost nearly forty thousand dollars.

At the famous pass of the Pierre Pertuis, the road is carried through a solid rock near fifty feet thick, the height of the arch twenty-six, and its breadth twenty-five. The ruins of Cæsar's wall, which extended eighteen miles in length, from Mount Jura to the banks of lake Leman, are discernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been discovered near the Baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus, and at Avanche in the canton of Berne. Switzerland boasts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of Jesuits; and many cabinets of valuable manuscripts, antiques, and curiosities of all kinds. At Lucerne is to be seen a topographical representation of the most mountainous part of Switzerland, by general Pfiffer a native of this town, and an officer in the French service. It is a model in relief, and well deserves the attention of the curious traveller. What was finished in 1776, comprised about sixty square leagues, in the cantons of Lucerne, Zug, Berne, Uri, Switz and Underwald. The model was twelve feet long, and nine and a half broad. The composition is principally a mastick of charcoal, lime, clay, a little pitch, with a thin coat of wax; and is so hard as to be trod upon without receiving the least damage. The whole is painted with different colours, representing the objects as they exist in nature. It is worthy of peculiar observation, that not only the woods of oak, beech, pine, and other trees are distinguished, but also, that the strata of the several rocks are marked, each being shaped upon the spot, and formed with granite, gravel, calcareous stone, or such other natural substances as compose the original mountains. The plan is minutely exact, and not only comprises all the mountains, lakes, towns, villages, and forests; but every cottage, every torrent, every road, and every path is distinctly and accurately represented. He takes his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucerne, which, according to Saussure, is about fourteen hundred and eight feet above the Mediterranean. This model, exhibiting the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, conveys a sublime picture of immense Alps piled one upon another. It appears, that continual chains of mountains of equal elevation are raised in progression to the highest range, and from thence gradually descend in the same proportion to Italy. Near Rosiniere is a famous spring, that rises in the middle of a natural bason of twelve square feet. The force that acts upon it must be prodigious. After a great shower of rain, it carries up a column of water, as thick as a man's thigh,

nearly a foot above its surface. Its temperature never varies. Its surface is clear as crystal, and its depth unfathomable.

There is no semblance of forests in the country. So scarce is wood, and even turf, that the dung of cows and sheep is often used for culinary fire.

Cities.] Of these the most considerable is the city of Berne, standing on the river Aar. It contains 13,000 inhabitants. This city and canton, it is said, forms almost a third of the Helvetick confederacy, and can, upon occasion, fit out 100,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided with arsenals, bridges and publick edifices. Basle is considered as the capital of all Switzerland. It is situated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, by which it is divided into two parts, the larger of which is on the side of Switzerland, the other on the side of Germany; but they are joined together by a handsome bridge. It contains two hundred and twenty streets and six market places, and 14,000 inhabitants. The town-house, which stands on the river Birsec, is supported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. The clocks here always go an hour too fast, because they stopped on the day appointed to murder the magistrates, by which the conspiracy was disconcerted. The situation of Basle is pleasing: And it is considered as one of the keys of Switzerland. In the cathedral is the tomb of Erasmus. Baden is famous for its antiquity and baths. Zurich is far less considerable than Berne, but in the arsenal is shewn the bow of the famous William Tell, and in the library is a manuscript of excellent letters, written by the unfortunate lady Jane Grey to the judicious reformer Bullinger, in elegant Latin and German. Lausanne contains 9000 inhabitants, Fribourg and Schaffhausen each 6000, Lucerne, Solothurn, and Einsiedlen about 5000 each.

Commerce and Manufactures.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, stockings, handkerchiefs, ribands, silk and painted cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, to fabricate silks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progress in those manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a prospect of being able soon to make considerable exports. Watches are a considerable article of sale.

Constitution and Government.] "It is commonly said," Mr. Adams observes,* "that some of the cantons of Switzerland are democratical, others aristocratical; and if these epithets are understood only to mean that one of these powers prevails in some of these republicks, and the other in the rest, they are just enough; but there is neither a simple democracy, nor a simple aristocracy among them. The government of these confederated states, like those of the United Provinces of the Netherlands, are very complicated, and therefore very difficult to be explained."

* Defence of the Amer. Const. Vol. I. p. 22.

Every canton is absolute in its own jurisdiction, but those of Berne, Fribourg, Soleure, Lucerne, Zurich and Schaffhause, with their allies and dependencies, Mulhause, Bienne, St. Gall, and Geneva, are aristocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Berne excepted. Those of Uri, Switz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris and Appenzell, are democratical. Basil, though it has the appearance of aristocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even those aristocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government.* However, in all of them the real interests of the people appear to have been much regarded, and they enjoyed a degree of happiness not to be expected in despotick governments. Each canton had prudently reconciled itself to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented, on the basis of affection, a system of mutual defence.

The confederacy, considered as a republick, comprehends three divisions. The first are the Swiss, properly so called. The second are the Grisons, or the states confederated with the Swiss, for their common protection. The third are those prefectures, which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserve each its own particular magistrates. Every canton forms within itself a little republick; but when any controversy arises that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which sits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every question is decided by the majority. The general diet consists of two deputies from each canton, besides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bienne. It is observed by Mr. Coxe, to whom the publick have been indebted for the best account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happiness and content more universally prevail among the people: For whether the governments be aristocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general spirit of liberty pervades and actuates the several constitutions; so that even the oligarchical states (which, of all others, are usually the most tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the subject is securely guarded against every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their sumptuary laws, and equal division of their fortunes among their children, seem to insure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the same extent of region, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with such wisdom was the Helvetick union composed, and so little have the Swiss, of late years, been actuated by the spirit of conquest, that since the firm and complete establishment of their general confederacy, they have scarcely ever had occasion to employ their arms against a foreign enemy; and have had no hostile commotions among themselves, that were not very soon happily terminated. But the government is subverted by the French, and Switzerland is a dependant province.

Revenues and Taxes.] The variety of cantons that constitute the Swiss confederacy, renders it difficult to give a precise account of

* The reader may find these differences accurately pointed out in that learned and useful work just quoted.

their revenues. Those of the canton of Berne are said to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and those of Zurich to 150,000; the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is saved, after defraying the necessary expenses of government, is laid up as a common stock; and it has been said, that the Swiss are possessed of 500,000l. sterling in the English funds, besides those in other banks.

The revenues arise, 1. From the profits of the demesne lands; 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Customs and duties on merchandize; 4. The revenues arising from the sale of salt, and some casual taxes.

Military Strength.] The internal strength of the Swiss cantons, independent of the militia, consists of 13,400 men, raised according to the population and abilities of each. The economy and wisdom with which this force is raised and employed, are truly admirable; as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign states and princes are supplied, so as to benefit the state, without any prejudice to its population. Every burgher, peasant and subject, is obliged to exercise himself in the use of arms; to appear on the stated days for shooting at a mark; to furnish himself with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiss engage in the service of foreign princes and states, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments. In the latter case, the government permits the enlisting volunteers, though only for such states as they are in alliance with, or with whom they have entered into a previous engagement on that article. But no subject is to be forced into foreign service, or even to be enlisted without the concurrence of the magistracy.

SWISS ALLIES.

The Grisons. This is called the democratical republick of the Three Leagues. 1. The league of the Grisons. 2. The League Caddee. 3. The League of Ten Jurisdictions. These three are united by the perpetual confederation of 1472, which has been several times renewed. This country contains a great part of the ancient Rhetia, being 105 miles long and 90 broad. It is said they can send 35,000 into the field, who are the militia of the country. There is more equality among the inhabitants of this country than in almost any other, yet there are even here noble families, who, although they live like their neighbours, by the cultivation of the earth, and think it no disgrace, are very proud of the immense antiquity of their descent, and value themselves as much upon it as Julius Cæsar did who was descended from a goddess.*

Geneva. "The history of this republick ought to be studied with anxious attention by every American citizen."† It is situated on the confines of France and Savoy. The city of Geneva stands on

* Adams's Defence, Vol. I. p. 21, 22. † Ibid. Vol. I. p. 52.

the banks of the Rhone, just at the place where it issues from the lake which takes its name from the city; and part of it is built on an island in the river, lat. 46° 12′ 9″, E. long. 6°: It is handsome, well fortified, and pretty large; the streets in general are clean and well paved, but the principal one is encumbered with a row of shops on each side between the carriages and foot paths. The latter is very wide and protected from the weather by great wooden pent houses projecting from the roofs; which, though very convenient, give the street a dark and dull appearance. The houses are generally constructed of free-stone, with basements of lime-stone; the gutters, spouts, ridges, and outward ornaments being made of tinned iron. Some of them have arched walls or piazzas in front. The place called *Treille* is very agreeable, being planted with linden trees, and commanding a fine prospect of the lake, with several ranges of rocks rising behind one another, some covered with vineyards and herbage, and others with snow, having openings between them. Immediately below Geneva the Rhone is joined by the Arve, a cold and muddy stream rising among the Alps, and deriving a considerable part of its waters from the glaciers. The Rhone is quite clear and transparent, so that the muddy water of the Arve, is distinguishable from it even after they have flowed for several miles together. There are four bridges over the Rhone before it joins the Arve; and from it the city is supplied with water by means of an hydraulick machine, which raises it 100 Paris feet above its level. The principal buildings are, 1. The Masion de Ville, or town house, a plain ancient edifice, with large rooms, in which the councils assemble, and publick entertainments are held; and in one of them a weekly concert is held by subscription during the winter. The ascent to the upper story is not by steps, but a paved acclivity; which, however, is so gentle, that horses and mules can go up to the top. 2. The church of St. Peter, formerly the cathedral, is an ancient Gothick building, with a modern portico of seven large Corinthian columns of red and white marble from Roche. The only thing remarkable in the inside is the tomb of Henry, duke of Rohau. 3. The arsenal is in good order, and supplied with arms sufficient for 12,000 men. There are many ancient suits of armour; and the scaling ladders, lanthorns, hatchets, &c. used by the Savoyards in their treacherons attempt on that city in the year 1602, are here preserved. The magazines contain 110 cannons, beside mortars. 4. The hospital is a large handsome building, by which, and other charities, near 4,000 poor people are maintained.

The territory belonging to this city contains about seven square leagues, and is divided into nine parishes: the town is by far the most populous in Switzerland, having about 30,000 inhabitants, of whom, however, 5,000 are generally supposed to be absent. It has a small district dependent upon it, but this does not contain above 16,000 inhabitants. The adjacent country is extremely beautiful, and has many magnificent views arising from the different positions of the numerous hills and mountains with regard to the town and lake. The inhabitants were formerly distinguished into four classes, viz. citizens, burgesses, inhabitants and natives; and since the revolution

in 1782, a fifth class, named *domicilius*, has been added, who annually receive permission from the magistrates to reside in the city. The citizens and burgesses alone, however, are admitted to a share in the government; those called *inhabitants* are strangers, allowed to settle in the town with certain privileges; and the *natives* are the sons of those inhabitants, who possess additional advantages. The people are very active and industrious, carrying on an extensive commerce.

This city is remarkable for the number of learned men it has produced. The reformed doctrines of religion were very early received in it, being preached there in 1533, by William Farel and Peter Viret of Orbe, and afterwards finally established, by the celebrated John Calvin. It was by the assiduity of this celebrated reformer, and the influence that he acquired among the citizens, that a publick academy was first established in the city, where he, Theodore Beza, and some of the more eminent first reformers, read lectures with uncommon success. It is the most tolerating of all the states in Switzerland, being the only one of them which permits the publick exercise of the Lutheran religion. The advantages of the academy at Geneva are very conspicuous among the citizens at this day, even the lower classes of them being exceedingly well informed; so that, according to Mr. Coxe, there is not a city in Europe where learning is so generally diffused. "I received great satisfaction (says he) in conversing even with several tradesmen upon topicks both of literature and politicks; and was astonished to find in this class of men so uncommon a share of knowledge; but the wonder ceases when we are told, that all of them were educated at the publick academy." In this seminary the industry and emulation of the students are excited by the annual distribution of prizes to those who distinguish themselves in each class. The prizes consist of small medals, but are conferred with such solemnity as cannot fail to produce a striking effect on the minds of youth. There is also a publick library, to which the citizens have access, and which undoubtedly tends greatly to that universal diffusion of learning so remarkable among the inhabitants. It was founded by Bonnivard, remarkable for his sufferings in the cause of the liberties of his country. Having been a great antagonist of the dukes of Savoy, against whom he asserted the independence of Geneva, he had the misfortune at last to be taken prisoner, and was imprisoned for six years in a dungeon below the level of the lake, in the castle of Chillon, which stands on a rock in the lake, and is connected with the land by a draw-bridge. In 1536 this castle was taken from Charles III. of Savoy, by the canton of Berne, assisted by the Genevans, who furnished a frigate (their whole naval force) to besiege it by sea. Bonnivard was now taken from his dungeon, where, by constant walking backwards and forwards, his only amusement, he had worn a hollow in the floor, which consisted of solid rock. Bonnivard considered the hardships he had endured as ties which endeared him to the city, and became a principal promoter of the reformation by the mild methods of persuasion and instruction. He closed his benefactions by the gift of his books and manuscripts, and bequeathing his fortune towards the establishment and support of the seminary. His works, which chiefly relate to the history of Ge-

neva, are still preserved with great care and reverence. The library contains 25,000 volumes, with many curious manuscripts, of which an account has been published by the reverend M. Sennebier the librarian, who has likewise distinguished himself by several literary works. Messrs. Bonnet, Saussure, Mallet, and de Luc, are the other most distinguished literary geniuses of which Geneva can boast. The last is particularly remarkable for the perfection to which he has brought the barometer, and which is now so great, that very little seems possible to be done by any body else. His cabinet merits the attention of naturalists, as containing many rare and curious specimens of fossils, which serve to illustrate the theory of the globe.

History and Government of Geneva.] In the time of Charles the Great, the city and territory of Geneva made part of his empire; and, under his successors, it became subject to the German emperors. By reason of the imbecility of these princes, however, the bishops of Geneva acquired such authority over the inhabitants, that the emperor had no other means of counterbalancing it than by augmenting the privileges of the people. In these barbarous ages also the bishops and counts had constant disputes, of which the people took the advantage; and by siding sometimes with one, and sometimes with the other, they obtained an extension of their privileges from both. The House of Savoy at length purchased the territory, and succeeded the counts with additional power: Against them therefore the bishops and people united, in order to resist their encroachments; and, during this period, the government was strangely complicated, by reason of the various pretensions of the three parties. The counts of Savoy, however, had at last the address to dissolve the union between the bishops and citizens, by procuring the episcopal see for their brothers, and even their illegitimate children: by which means their power became gradually so extensive, that towards the commencement of the 16th century, Charles III. of Savoy (though the government was accounted entirely republican) obtained an almost absolute authority over the people, and exercised it in a most unjust and arbitrary manner. Thus violent commotions took place; and the citizens became divided into two parties, one of which, viz. the patriots, were styled *confederates*; the partisans of Savoy being disgraced by the appellation of *slaves*. The true period of Genevan liberty may therefore be considered as commencing with the treaty concluded with Berne and Fribourg in the year 1526; in consequence of which the duke was in a short time deprived of his authority, the bishop driven from the city, and the reformed religion and a republican form of government introduced. A long war commenced with Savoy on this account; but the Genevans proved an overmatch for their enemies, by their own bravery and the assistance of the inhabitants of Berne. In 1584, the republick concluded a treaty with Zurich and Berne, by which it is allied to the Swiss cantons. The House of Savoy made their last attempt against Geneva in 1602, when the city was treacherously attacked in the night time, during a profound peace. Two hundred soldiers had scaled the walls, and got into the town before any alarm was given; but they were repulsed by the desperate valour of a few citizens, who perished in the encounter,

A petard had been fastened to one of the gates by the Savoyards; but the gunner was killed before it could be discharged. The war occasioned by this treachery was next year concluded by a solemn treaty, which has ever since been observed on both sides; though the independence of Geneva was not formally acknowledged by the king of Sardinia till the year 1754.

The restoration of tranquillity from without, in consequence of the above treaty, was, however, soon followed by the flames of internal discord, so common in popular governments; so that, during the whole of the 16th century, the history of Geneva affords little more than an account of the struggles betwixt the aristocratical and popular parties.

In 1776, as Mr. Coxe informs us, the government might be considered as a mean betwixt that of the aristocratical and popular cantons of Switzerland.

Since this period, several important changes have taken place, particularly in 1782, 1791, 1793. To detail the particulars of these revolutions, would exceed the limits prescribed to this work.*

By the revolution of 1793, effected by a disorganizing French influence, Geneva was reduced to the most humiliating and afflicting state of anarchy and distress. "Geneva," says the historian of this revolution, "is lost without resource, in respect to religion, to morals, to the sciences, to the fine arts, to trade, to liberty, and above all, to internal peace. Its convulsions have no other term than those of France, to the fate of which it has had the criminal imprudence to attach itself, and the various shocks of which it must, more or less inevitably suffer."

NEUCHATEL lies bordering on Berne and Fribourg, which are E. and S. of it, 36 by 18 miles in extent. The first magistrate of this monarchical republick is the king of Prussia, to whom the country voluntarily submitted in 1707. The authority of the king is limited by the great privileges of the country. The sovereignty is exercised conjointly, 1. By the king's governour, who presides in the assembly of the states; 2. By the body of the three estates, composed of 12 judges, who administer judgment in the last resort, and four counsellors of state for the nobility.

This republick is divided into four chatellanies, and 15 mayories. The inhabitants are jealous of their liberties, and are nevertheless attached to their prince. The relation of this republican principality with the Helvetick body, consists in an ancient alliance with the 4 cantons of Berne, Lucerne, Fribourg, and Soleure; but the canton of Berne is particular protector, and the declared arbiter between it and its prince, since 1406. The city of Neuchatel has also a strict alliance of fellow-citizenship with Berne. This city is handsome, seated on a lake of the same name, 17 miles in length, and 5 in breadth; lat. 47° 5′ N. lon. 7° E. 25 miles W. of Berne.

This republick is well peopled, and contains three cities, one town, or bourg, 90 large villages, and 3,000 (some say 9,000) houses, scat-

* See Adams's Defence, Vol. I. p. 52. Encyc. article Geneva, and "A brief account of the origin and progress of the revolution in Geneva," by Dr. D'Ivirnois.

tered at a distance from each other, among the mountains. The climate is temperate and healthy, and in general good. There are some large vineyards which produce white and red wine, the last of an excellent quality. The pastures on the mountains feed a great number of all sorts of cattle, and there are a plenty of deer in the forest; besides large trout, and other fish in the lakes and rivers. The people are ingenious, polite, active and industrious; and though "the most absolute monarch in Germany is their first magistrate, their liberties are better secured than in the most democratical cantons of Switzerland, where there is no property to contend for, beyond the value of a pail of milk, a kid, or a lamb. Liberal encouragement is given to strangers to settle in the country. They enjoy every privilege of trade and commerce. This enlarged policy has greatly augmented their population. The ancient constitution of Rhodes was probably much like this of Neuchatel, in three branches, and was accordingly celebrated as one of the best models of government in antiquity, and had effects equally happy upon the order, liberty, commerce and population of that country. This happy mixture in three branches has been the never failing means of uniting law and liberty in ancient and modern times."

> "Who knows in union's closer bands to draw
> The opposing claims of liberty and law,
> Shall gain from virtue's breath a purer fame
> Than all the Poet or the Sage can claim."*

St. Gall. This republick is a league and a half in circumference, and contains 9000 (some say 10,000) souls. The inhabitants are very industrious in manufactures of linen, (of which they make 40,000 pieces of 200 ells each annually) muslin and embroidery—have an extensive commerce; and arts, sciences and literature are esteemed and cultivated among them. They have a remarkable publick library, in which are 13 vols. of original manuscript letters of the first Reformers. The inhabitants are Protestants. The town of St. Gall, is 37 miles N. E. of Zurich; long. 9° 20′, lat. 47° 26′.

The republick of Bienne, situated on a lake of the same name, 17 miles N. W. of Berne, contains less than 6000 Protestant inhabitants, N. lat. 47° 11′, E. long. 7° 10′.

History.] The present Swiss and Grisons, as has been already mentioned, are the descendants of the ancient Helvetii, subdued by Julius Cæsar. Their mountainous, uninviting situation formed a better security for their liberties than their forts or armies; and the same is the case at present. They continued long under little better than a nominal subjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor Albert I. treated them with so much rigour, that they petitioned him against the cruelty of his governours. This served only to double the hardships of the people; and one of Albert's Austrian governours, Gresler, in the wantonness of tyranny, set up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much respect as to himself. One William Tell, being observed to pass frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excel-

* Defence. Vol. II. p. 450.

lent marksman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unless he cleft an apple upon his son's head, at a certain distance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Gresler asking him the meaning of another arrow he saw stuck in his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intended for his (Gresler's) heart, if he had killed his son. Tell was condemned to prison upon this; but making his escape, he watched his opportunity, and shot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundations of the Helvetick liberty.

It appears, however, that before this event, the revolt of the Swiss from the Austrian tyranny had been planned by some noble patriots among them. Their measures were so just, and their course so intrepid, that they soon effected a union of several cantons.

"In 1388 the Austrians made an irruption into their territory, with an army of 15,000 men; but instead of conquering the country as they expected, in attacking about 400 men posted in the mountains at Næfel, they were broken by the stones rolled upon them from the summit. The Swiss at this critical moment, rushed down upon them with such fury, as forced them to retire with an immense loss."

[*Mr. Adams.*]

Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Switz and Underwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent successes of their arms against Albert, duke of Austria, insensibly formed the grand Helvetick union. They first conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne united itself in 1353; Fribourg and Soleure, 130 years after; Basil and Schaffhause in 1501; and Appenzell, in 1513, completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till by the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, their confederacy was declared to a be a free and independent state.

Neuchatel, since the year 1707, has been under the dominion of the king of Prussia, but the inhabitants are free to serve any prince whatever, and by no means bound to take an active part in his wars. The king has the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governour, but the revenue he derives is not above 5000l. yearly, great part of which is laid out on the roads and other publick works of the country. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swiss, we refer the reader to the histories of Europe.

A defensive alliance subsisted between France and several of the Swiss cantons for more than a century, to the great advantage of both. These republicans found in that monarchy a steady, faithful and generous friend. In 1777 the alliance was renewed in the city of Soleure, and extended to all the cantons.

From this period, till the commencement of that disastrous revolution which has been effected by the intrigues of the French, the Swiss were so much wiser than any of the other European powers, that they preserved a peace uninterrupted, except by some internal disputes, principally arising from religious zeal, and which were speedily terminated. Their history, therefore, during this period, is comprised in few words. It affords no room for signalizing the

abilities of a writer, by detailing the "splendid miseries of mankind" in battles and sieges, victories and and defeats. While other nations descanted largely on the blessings of peace, liberty and property, amidst the curses of war, taxes, and oppression, these happy people quietly enjoyed all the manifold advantages, which sound policy, steadily pursued, could confer.

The present situation of Switzerland is a striking contrast to the foregoing. It is "correctly and energetically drawn in the picture of Athens, left us by a writer of the middle ages, after the invasion. *It is the empty and bloody skin of an immolated victim.* She has nothing left but ROCKS and RUINS and DEMAGOGUES." See the "History of the Destruction of the Helvetick Union and Liberty," by J. MALLET DU PAN.

TURKEY.

THE Grand Signior's Dominions are divided into 1. TURKEY in EUROPE: 2. TURKEY in ASIA: 3. TURKEY in AFRICA. They contain, according to Guthrie, 960,000 square miles; according to Zimmermann, 800,000; and 49,000,000 inhabitants.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 1000, Breadth 900	between	17° and 40° east longitude. 34° and 49° north latitude.	182,560

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Russia, Poland and Sclavonia on the North; by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont and Archipelago on the East; by the Mediterranean on the South; by the same sea, and the Venetian and Austrian territories on the West. It has a population of 43 to a square mile, or 8,000,000 in the whole.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. miles.
On the north coast of the Black Sea are the provinces of	Crim and Little Tartary, and the ancient Taurica Chersonesus*	Precop, Brachiseria, Kaffa	26,000
	Budziac Tartary	Oczakow	12,000

* The Russians in 1783, seized on the Crimea, the principal part of this division, and by a treaty signed January 9th, 1784, the Turks ceded it to them with the isle of Taman, and that part of Cuban which is bounded by the river of that name. The Turks have now only the Tartar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black Sea. So that the present boundaries between the Turkish and Russian empires are formed by the river Bog in Europe, and the river Cuban in Asia.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. miles
North of the Danube are the provinces of	Bessarabia	Bender	8,000
		Belgorod	
	Moldavia, olim Dacia	Jazy, Choczim, Falczin	26,000
	Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia	Buckaretch	60000 in.
		Tergovisto	19,000
South of the Danube are	Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient Mysia	Widin, Nicopoli, Silistra, Scopia	17,000
	Servia, the west part of Mysia	Belgrade, Semendria, Nissa	22,570
	Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum	Seraio	8,640
On the Bosphorus and Hellespont	Romania olim Thrace	Constantinople, N. L. 41°, E. L. 29°	21,200
		Adrianople	
South of mount Rhodope or Argentum, the north part of the ancient Greece	Macedonia	Strymon	18,980
		Contessa	
	Thessaly, now Janua	Salonichi	4,850
		Larissa	
	Achaia and Bœotia now Livadia	Athens, Thebes, Lepanto	3,420
On the Adriatick sea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum	Epirus	Chimera	7,955
		Burtinto	
	Albania	Scodra	
		Durazzo	6,375
		Dulcigno	
	Dalmatia	Zara	4,560
		Narenza	
	Ragusa republick*	Ragusa	430

* The republick of Ragusa, though reckoned by geographers part of Turkey in Europe, is not under the Turkish government. It is an aristocratical state formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republick, who is styled rector, is changed every month, and elected by scrutiny or lot. During his short administration, he lives in the palace, and wears a ducal habit. As the Ragusans are unable to protect themselves, they make use of their wealth to procure them pro-

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. miles.
In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the south division of Greece, are	Corinthia	Corinth	7,220
	Argos	Argos	
	Sparta	Napoli de Romania Lacedæmon, now Misitria, on the river Eurotas	
	Olympia where the games were held	Olympia or Longinica, on the river Alpheus	
	Arcadia	Modon Coron Patras	
	Elis	Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus.	

Climate, soil and face of the country.] These extensive regions in general enjoy a delightful climate. Ovid, banished to Bulgaria, describes these countries as dismal as Lapland. Hence it is evident, even with suitable allowance for the chagrin of the poet, that the seasons have become more pleasant. The humid morasses and extensive forests have vanished; rivers, which used to freeze continue their course through the winter. The country is rather mountainous; but the soil is fertile, producing vines, melons, rice, wheat, and rich pasturage. That soil must be rich indeed, which supports its inhabitants with the lazy cultivation of the Turks. [*Pinkerton.*]

tectors, the chief of whom for many years was the grand signior. They endeavoured also to keep upon good terms with the Venetians and other neighbouring states. But in the year 1783, a dispute arose between them and the king of Naples, respecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Ragusan troops. It was terminated by the republick's putting itself under that king's protection. The city of Ragusa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built, and contains some handsome edifices. The ancient Epidauras was situated not far from this city. The Ragusans profess the Romanish religion, but Greeks, Armenians and Turks are tolerated. Almost all the citizens are traders, and they keep so watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Ragusa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in use among the Ragusans is the Sclavonian, but the greatest part of them speak the Italian. They have many trading vessels, and are carriers in the Mediterranean, like the Dutch, being constantly at peace with the piratical states of Barbary. The city of Gravosa, and Stagno, 30 miles N. E. of Ragusa, are within the territories of this republick, and there are also five small islands belonging to it, the principal of which is Melida.

Mountains.] These are the most celebrated of any in the world, and at the same time often most fruitful. Mount Athos lies on a peninsula, running into the Ægean sea; the Mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, separate Thessaly from Epirus. Parnassus, in Achaia, so famous for being consecrated to the Muses, is well known. Mount Hæmus is likewise often mentioned by the poets; but most of the other mountains have changed their names; for instance, the mountains Shua, Witoska, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the most celebrated mountains above mentioned have had modern names imposed upon them by the Turks, their new masters, and others in their neighbourhood.

Seas.] The Euxine or Black Sea; the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Asoph; the Sea of Marmora, which separates Europe from Asia; the Archipelago; the Ionian Sea, and the Levant, are so many evidences, that Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Constantinople stands, of all other countries, had the best claim to be mistress of the world.

Straits.] Those of the Hellespont and Bosphorus are joined to the Sea of Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as ancient history.

Rivers.] The Danube is for 400 miles a Turkish stream, being in some places a mile wide, affording all the advantages of a Mediterranean sea. The Save, the Neister, the Neiper and the Don are the best known rivers in this country; though many others have been celebrated by poets and historians. The Maritz, or ancient Hebrus, rises in the mountains of Hæmus, and running E. and S. falls into the Ægean sea after a course of 250 miles.

Lakes.] These are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applause, either by the ancients or moderns. The Lago di Sentari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, so famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in Morea; and Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx issues, conceived by the ancients to be the passage into hell.

Antiquities and Curiosities, natural and artificial.] Almost every spot of ground, every river, and every fountain in Greece presents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the Isthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Isthmean games were celebrated, are still visible. Athens, which contains at present above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful source of the most magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world, a minute account of which would exceed the limits of this work; but it will be proper to mention some of the most considerable. On the south-west of Athens is a beautiful structure, commonly called the Lantern of Demosthenes: This is a small round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is supported by six fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and a half high; in the space between the columns are pannels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the resemblance of scales; and on the frieze are beautifully represented in relievo the labours of Hercules. Here are also to be seen the temple of Winds; the remains of the theatre of Bacchus;

of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; and of the temples of Jupiter, Olympius and Augustus. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo are still visible at Castri, on the south side of mount Parnassus, and the marble steps that descend to a pleasant running water, supposed to be the renowned Castalian spring, with the niches for statues in the rock, are still discernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is still a natural curiosity in Livadiæ, the old Bœotia.

On the birth of a child the father gives the name, putting a grain of salt in its mouth. It is circumcised at the age of 12 or 14 years. Either party may dissolve the marriage contract at pleasure. The man seldom sees his bride till after the ceremony, the business being negotiated by female friends. The dead are perfumed with incense, and buried in a cloth open at top and bottom, that the deceased may sit up and converse with the angels of death.

Mount Athos, which has been already mentioned, and which is commonly called Monto Santo, lies on a peninsula which extends into the Ægean sea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninsula, seven Turkish miles in length, and three in breadth; but it is only a single mountain that is properly called Athos. This is so lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the sunrising was beheld four hours sooner than by the inhabitants of the coast; and, at the solstice, its shade reached into the Agora or market-place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which island was distant eighty-seven miles eastward. There are twenty-two convents on mount Athos, besides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no less than six thousand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty; the other monks are anchorites, or such as live in cells. These Greek monks, who call themselves the inhabitants of the holy mountain, are so far from being a set of slothful people, that, besides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, masons, stone-cutters, cloth-workers, tailors, &c. They also live a very austere life; their usual food, instead of flesh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs and other fruit, onions, cheese, and, on certain days, Lent excepted, fish. Their fasts are many and severe; which, with the healthfulness of the air, renders longevity so common there, that many of them live above a hundred years. It appears from Ælian, that anciently the mountain in general, and particularly the summit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life; whence the inhabitants were called Macrobii, or long lived. We are farther informed by Philostratus, in the life of Appollonius, that numbers of philosophers used to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens, and of nature; and after their example the monks doubtless built their cells.

In the isle of Antiparos is a remarkable cavern, which, with its various windings, extends 900 hundred feet into a rock of white marble.

Commerce and Manufactures.] Situated in the centre of the eastern continent, the Turks might easily acquire the trade, as well as the empire, of the world, if not prevented by their indolence and the maxims of their government. But they are rather the destroyers than the

promoters of trade; yet, as they possess so great a portion of the world, and some of the most fruitful countries, yielding the most valuable articles of commerce, the merchants of other nations are induced to trade with them. The Turks depend chiefly on foreign nations for their manufactured articles. Their merchants are mostly of the enterprising of the surrounding nations.

The English, French and Dutch merchants, furnish the Turks with fine woollen cloths richly died; block-tin, lead, clocks and watches. Of these articles the English have furnished annually to the amount of 300,000l. sterling. In return, the Turks give raw silk, wool, goat's hair, oil, gums; Persian silks, carpets; Morocco skins, shagreen skins, galls from Syria; coffee from Mocha; by Alexandria, balm, balsam, rhubarb; from Persia sal-ammoniack, turmerick, frankincense, myrrh, opium, &c. &c. [See this article in Turkey in Asia.] The trade to this country is of great importance. The enterprising Americans have already found their way to many of their ports.

Cities.] Constantinople, the capital of this great empire, is situated on the European side of the Bosphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Constantine the Great, as a more inviting situation than Rome for the seat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and having escaped the destructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city in Europe, and the only one during the Gothick ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the possession of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the East-Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the crusaders, and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the crusades, speak of it with astonishment. "O what a vast city is Constantinople, (exclaimed one, when he first beheld it) and how beautiful? How many monasteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art? How many manufactures are there in the city amazing to behold! It would be astonishing to relate how it abounds with all the good things, with gold, silver, and stuffs of various kinds; for every hour ships arrive in the port with all things necessary for the use of man." Constantinople is at this day one of the finest cities in the world by its situation and its port. The prospect from it is noble. The most regular part, is the Besestin, inclosed with walls and gates where the merchants have their shops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong square of 400 paces by 200, where they exercise on horseback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large spacious square, the general resort of all ranks. On the opposite side of the port are four towns, but considered as a part of the suburbs, their distance being so small, a person may easily be heard on the other side. They are named Pera, Galata, Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera, the foreign ambassadors and all the Franks* reside, not being permitted to live in the city: Galata also is mostly inhabited by Franks and Jews, and

* The Turks call all foreign merchants and strangers, in general, *Franks*.

is a place of great trade. The city abounds with antiquities; the tomb of Constantine the Great is still preserved. The mosque of St. Sophia, once a christian church, is thought in some respects to exceed in grandeur and architecture St. Peter's at Rome. The city is built in a triangular form, with the Seraglio standing on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a prospect of the delightful coast of the Lesser Asia, which is not to be equalled. When we speak of the seraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand signior's women are confined, as is commonly imagined, but the whole inclosure of the Ottoman palace, which might well suffice for a moderate town. The wall which surrounds the seraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embrasures, and towers, in the style of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of these the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porte*, or the *Sublime Porte*, in all publick transactions and records. Both the magnitude and population of Constantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. It is surrounded by a high and thick wall, with battlements after the oriental manner; and towers defended by a lined but shallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land side. Some authors think that it contains a million of inhabitants; among them are reckoned 200,000 Greeks, 40,000 Armenians, and 60,000 Jews; but others estimate the population at 400,000, of which 200,000 are Turks, 100,000 Greeks, and the remainder Jews, Armenians, and Franks. [*Pinkerton.*]

The city has been frequently assailed by fires, either owing to the narrowness of the streets and the structure of the houses, or the arts of the Janizaries. In August 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter situated towards the harbour, and spread into other quarters, and about 10,000 houses (most of which had been rebuilt after the fire in 1782) were consumed.

The plague has, more than once, swept off more than a fifth of the inhabitants of this city; and yet, in consequence of the frequency of these desolations, especially the Turkish doctrine of fatality, they give themselves little or no concern about it.

Opposite to the seraglio on the Asian side, and about a mile and a half distant across the water, is Scutari, adorned with a royal mosque, and a pleasure-house of the grand signior. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand prospect; in one view are the cities of Constantinople, Galata and Pera, the small seas of the Bosphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each shore.

Adrianople, formerly the seat of the Turkish empire in Europe is next in dignity. It is surrounded by a wall 2 miles in circuit. The inhabitants of Sosia are 70,000.

Silistria on the Danube in Bulgaria contains 60,000 inhabitants. Bucharest, the chief city of Walachia has the same number. Jassa and Bender have 10 or 12,000 inhabitants each; Belgrade, capital of Servia has about 25,000 inhabitants. Barjaluka contains 18,000 souls and Salorina 60,000; Larissa an inland town, 25,000.

[*Pinkerton.*]

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military strength, commerce, and manfactures of the Turks,

these several heads depending on the same principles all over the empire, shall be mentioned under TURKEY in ASIA.

CRIM TARTARY, or the CRIMEA, is the ancient Taurida Chersonesus, and is a peninsula, lying on the Euxine, or Black Sea, by which it is bounded on the west and south, and on the east and north-east by that of Asoph. It is between 44 and 46 degrees of north latitude; and 34 and 37 degrees of east longitude.

This peninsula was esteemed a part of Turkey in Europe, until it was ceded to Russia, at the peace in 1784. Many cities were built on it by the Greeks, particularly those of Kherson, Theodosia, Panticapeum, and some others, which carried on a great trade with the Scythians, as well as with the Greek cities on the continent.

The most considerable rivers in the Crimea are those of Karasu and Salagir, both of which take an easterly course.

Of the towns in this part of the world we have very slight descriptions. Lady Craven, who, without doubt, had access to the best lodgings in the country, informs us, that "a Tartar's house is a very slight building of only one story, without any chair, table, or piece of wooden furniture. Large cushions are ranged round the room for seats; and what is extremely convenient, there is more than double the space of the room behind the wainscot, which draws back in most places; so that in a place where the room appears to be exceedingly small, there is yet every conveniency to be met with."

Among the curiosities in this country, we may reckon the source of the river Karusa, which is situated among rocks, in a very romantick manner, and rises in a considerable stream. It was visited by lady Craven in 1786. No less wonderful are those lakes which receive the rivulets without any visible outlet. This celebrated female traveller mentions a house, near Sebastopool, situated in a very romantick manner at the foot of some rocks, from which issues many clear springs that amply supply the houses and baths with water. On the summit of these rocks, there are places which immense cables have certainly passed and have been tied. The Tartars insist that the sea was once close to the foot of them, and ships were fastened there. Near Bacziseria there is a mine of earth, exactly like soap, which is reckoned very good for the skin, and vast quantities of it are consumed by the women at Constantinople. Lady Craven bestows the greatest encomiums on the sheep, which in this peninsula are innumerable, and afford the most beautiful and costly fleeces. The sheep are all spotted; the lambskins very beautiful, and they kill the ewes to have them before birth, when their skins have small spots, and are smooth like the finest and lightest satins. Coats lined with these skins are called Pelisses; and as a great number of these small animals must be killed to make the lining of one coat, this is one of the finest presents the empress can make to an ambassador.

The peninsula of the Crimea has a considerable trade in what is called Morocco leather, of various colours, which is to be had very cheap, and like satin. At Bacziseria there is a great trade of sword blades, knives and hangers, many of which are not to be distinguished from such as are made at Damascus.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO TURKEY IN EUROPE, BEING PART OF ANCIENT GREECE.

WE shall mention these Islands chiefly for the use of such readers as are conversant with ancient history, of which they make so distinguished a part.

Negropont, the ancient Eubœa, stretches from the southeast to the northwest, and on the eastern coast of Achaia or Lavadia. It is 90 miles long, and 25 broad, and contains about 1,300 square miles. Here the Turkish gallies lie. The tides on its coasts are irregular; and the island itself is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit and cattle, in such abundance, that all kinds of provisions are extremely cheap. The chief towns in the island are Negropont, called by the Greeks Egripos, situated on the southwest coast of the island, on the narrowest part of the strait; and Castel Rosso the ancient Craystus.

Lemnos, or Stalimene, lies on the north part of the Ægean Sea or Archipelago, and is almost a square of 25 miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches arise from its mineral earth, much used in medicine, sometimes called *terra Lemna* or *sigillata*, because it is sealed up by the Turks, who receive therefrom a considerable revenue.

Tenedos is remarkable only for its lying opposite to old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal security. It hath a town of the same name.

Scyros is about 60 miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains; about 300 Greek families inhabit it.

Lesbos, or Mytelene, is about 60 miles long, and is famous for the number of philosophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

Scio, or Chios, lies about 80 miles west of Smyrna, and is about 100 miles in circumference. This island, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and above 3,000 Latins. It hath 300 churches, besides chapels and monasteries; and a Turkish garrison of 1,400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and silk, and the lentisk tree, or mastick, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almost all the other Greek islands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their persons have been the most perfect models of symmetry to painters and statuaries. A late learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, says, "The beautiful Greek girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. Many of these were sitting at the doors and windows, twisting cotton or silk, or employed in spinning and needle work, and accosted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome, as we passed. The streets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear short petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their head dress, which is peculiar to the island, is a kind of turban,

the linen so white and thin it seemed like snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them fastened with a thong. Their garments were of silk of various colours; and their whole appearance so fantastick and lively, as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a separate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and shew a little square house, which they call Homer's school.

Samos lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of the Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is 30 miles long, and 15 broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island also produces wood, which they sell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and silk. This island is supposed to have been the native country of Juno; and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple and of the ancient city of Samos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the south of Samos lies Patmos, about 20 miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the island shew a cave where St. John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

The Cyclades islands lie in a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which is south of the islands Mycone and Tirse, and almost midway between the continent of Asia and Europe. Though Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birth place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

Paros lies between the islands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

Cerigo, or Cythera, lies southeast of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favourite residence of Venus.

Santorin is one of the most southern islands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though seemingly covered with pumice stones, yet through the industry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with some wheat. One third of the people are of the Latin church, and subject to a catholick bishop. Near this island another arose of the same name, from the bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time of its birth there was an earthquake, attended with most dreadful lightnings and thunders, and boilings of the sea for several days, so that when it arose out of the sea, it was a mere volcano, but the burning soon ceased. It is about 200 feet above the sea; and at the time of its first emerging, was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has since increased. Several other islands of

the Archipelago appear to have had the like original, and the sea in their neighbourhood is so deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous island of Rhodes is situated in the 28th degree of east longitude, and 36 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, about 20 miles southwest of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about 60 miles long, and 25 broad. This island is healthful and pleasant, abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life ; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town, of the same name, stands on the side of a hill fronting the sea, and is 3 miles in circumference, interspersed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour is the Grand Signior's principal arsenal for shipping, and the place is esteemed among the strongest fortresses belonging to the Turks. The colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of the harbour, and was 50 fathoms wide, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world : One foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passing between its legs ; and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The face of the colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated ; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea ; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, but lost it in 1522, after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

Candia, the ancient Crete, is still renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth place of Jupiter, the seat of legislature to all Greece, and many other historical and political distinctions. It lies between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long and 60 broad, (or 180 by 40 according to Pinkerton,) almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa, and contains 3,220 square miles. The famous Mount Ida stands in the middle of this island, and is no better than a barren rock ; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid stream. Some of the vallies of this island produce wine, fruits, and corn ; all of them remarkably excellent in their kinds. The siege of Candia, the capital of the island, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself against 56 storms, till the latter end of September, 1669, made, at last, an honourable capitulation. The siege cost the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

Cyprus lies in the Levant sea, about thirty miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is 150 miles long, and 70 broad, and lies at almost an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess ; and during the time of the crusades, was a rich flourishing kingdom, inhabited by Christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable and the richest of all that grows in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, in the midst of the country, and the see of a Greek archbishop ; indeed most part of the inhabitants of the island are Greeks. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour ; and the natural prod-

uce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to such a surprising degree, that the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1,250l. a year. The island produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made, and also cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, silk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their ancestors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that ancient seat of pleasure and corruption, is one of the divisions of the island. Richard I. king of England, subdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who still hold that empty honour.

The islands in the Ionian sea are, Sapienza, Stivali, Zante, Cephalonia, Santamaura, Corfu, Fannu, and others of smaller note, particularly, Isola del Compare, which would not deserve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses. These islands in general are fruitful, and belong to the Venetians.

Zante has a populous capital of the same name, and is a place of considerable trade, especially in currants, grapes and wine. The citadel is erected on the top of a large hill, strong by nature, but now little better than a heap of ruins. Here is a garrison of 500 men, but their chief dependence is on their fleet and the island of Corfu. The inhabitants of Zante are about 30,000, mostly Greeks, and friendly to strangers. Corfu, which is the capital of that island, and the residence of the governour-general over all the other islands, is a place of great strength, and its circumference about 4 miles. The Venetians are said to concern themselves very little about the welfare or government of these islands, so that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character. Their number at Corfu, is estimated at 50,000, and their manners more severe than at Zante.

History.] In European Turkey is included the ancient states of Greece and Macedon. The people of these states, so celebrated in history, for their government, politicks and revolutions, were, on the commencement of the Christian era, lost in the general conquests of the Romans. To the last remains of the Grecian or Eastern Empire, the Turks put a final period by the conquest of Constantinople, in 1453.

After making themselves masters of Constantinople, they continued to prosecute their wars against the Christians, till they had driven the Italians from almost all the isles in the Mediterranean sea. They extended their conquests into Germany, Hungary and Poland, towards the west and north-west, and into Russia and Tartary on the north; with the Persians they had frequent wars, with various success. The Egyptians and Arabs received their yoke. The Abyssinians were made to feel and to dread their power. But their military institutions have lost their energies, and the zeal of their religious imposture has abated. Their ill compacted empire is sinking under its own weight. The Russians have become far too powerful for the Turks; and the Turkish empire seems tottering to its fall. Its subjects, in many places, are ripe for revolution.

In military strength and improvements, the Turks are inferior to their neighbours. The French have already attacked them with success in Egypt. The Russians, their ancient enemies, were, for a while their defenders, but have since become their enemies. Germany is preparing to join in the war against them. England is their only ally. It is scarcely possible that the Turkish empire should be able long to resist such formidable attacks. With the fall of this empire, it is apprehended, will be connected the demolition of the Mahometan religion.

ASIA
ARCTIC OCEAN
EUROPE
Petersburg
Ladoga
White Sea
Archangel
Zembla
Newya
Vienodno
Lake Baikal
Baikal R.
Selinga R.
Yenisei R.
Angara R.
Irkutsk
Yakutsk
Lena R.
Yakutsk
Okhotsk
Sea of Okhotsk or Sea of LIMA
KAMTCHATKA
Petropaulowsky
Awatscha
Behring I.
Copper I.
Behring's Straits
Beer Pt.
R. Alaseia
Malos
Tschuktschi
YUKAGHIRI
R. Kolyma
Bas Tschuktschi
PROVINCE of YAKOUTSK
Mount Aldan
Aldan R.
Olekminsk
Vilui R.
Vilui
Yakutsk
Yablonnoi Mts
Udsk
PROVINCE of IRKOUTSK
Selenginsk
Nertschinsk
Argun R.
Amur R.
Albazin
Nertschinsk
Selenga R.
Kiachta
Troitschkoi Posad
Yaksa
Yablonnoi Mts
Stanovoi Mts
Jablonnoi Gora
Horsten Pera
Jugalischen Gora
Ochotsk
Penschinskoi Gulf
Penschinskoi
Kamtschatka R.
Kamtschatka
Channel of Tartary
Sea of Corea
Corea
Gulf of Corea
Sea of JAPAN
Japan Is.
Jesso
Matmai
Kunaschir I.
Kamtschatka I.
Compagnie Island
Behring Island
Copper Island
Marikan
Matmai
Kunaschir I.
Jesso
Japan Is.
Sea of Japan
Gulf of Tartary
Saghalien Ula
Saghalien Ula Mount
Tschitschicar
Pulcicoar
Vyguc
Tchitschicar
Pulcicoar
Mankowoes
Alinkoi
Korsowska
Palcowe
Parallelum
Korsun pre.
Corschin
Chamar
Tsumi
Chamar
Tsumi
Sea of Corea
Gulf of Corea
Sea of JAPAN
Japan Is.
Jesso
Sikoki
Kinasiu
Diamond Pt
Gulf of Tartary
Channel of Tartary
Sea of Corea

ASIA.

AS Asia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is also superior to them in the serenity of its air, the fertility of its soil, the deliciousness of its fruits, the fragrancy and balsamick qualities of its plants, spices and gums; the salubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richness of its metals, and the fineness of its silks and cottons. It was in Asia, according to the sacred records, that the all-wise Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the first man and first woman, from whom the race of mankind has descended. Asia became again the nursery of the world after the deluge, whence the desendants of Noah dispersed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Asia that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelation delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accomplished by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious gospel was carried with amazing rapidity into all the known nations, by his disciples and followers. Here the first christian churches were founded, and the christian faith miraculously propagated and cherished even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest; but it must be owned, that a great change has happened in that part of it called Turkey, which has lost much of its ancient splendour, and from the most populous and best cultivated spots in Asia, is become a wild and uncultivated desert. The other parts of Asia continue much in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility, as most of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in some measure heightened by custom and education; and the symptoms of it are more or less visible, as the several nations are seated nearer or farther from the north. What is wanting in the robust frame of their bodies among the Chinese, Mogul Indians, and all the inhabitants of the more southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanship, which our most skilful mechanicks have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

Islands.	Towns.	Sq. miles.	Trade with or belong to
The Japanese isles	Jeddo, Meaco	138,000	Dutch
The Ladrones	Guam		Spain
Formosa	Tai ouan fou	17,000	China
Anian	Kiontechow	11,000	China
The Philippines	Manilla	133,700	Spain
The Molucca or Clove isles	Victoria fort, Ternate		Dutch
The Banda or Nutmeg isles	Lantor		Dutch
Amboyna, Celebes, Gilolo, &c. (surrounding the Molucca and Banda isles.)	Amboyna	400	Dutch
	Macassar	68,400	Dutch
	Gilolo	10,400	Dutch
The Sunda isles: Borneo	Borneo, Gaytongee	128,000	All nations
The Sunda isles: Sumatra	Achen, Bencoolen	129,000	[Dutch English &
The Sunda isles: Java, &c	Batavia, Bantam	38,250	Dutch
The Andama and Nicobar isles	Andaman, Nicobar		All nations
Ceylon	Candy	27,730	Dutch
The Maldives	Caridon		All nations
Bombay	Bombay		English
The Kurile isles, and those in the sea of Kamtschatka, lately discovered by the Russians			Russia

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 1000, Breadth 800	between	27° and 46° east longitude. 28° and 45° north latitude.	520,820

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by the Black Sea and Circassia, on the north; by Persia, on the east; by Arabia and the Levant Sea on the south; and by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separates it from Europe, on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
The eastern provinces are	1. Fyraca Arabick or Chaldea	Bassora and Bagdad.
	2. Diarbec, or Mesopotamia	Diarbec, Orfa, & Mousul.
	3. Curdistan or Assyria.	Nineveh and Betlis.
	4. Turcomania or Armenia	Erzerum and Van.
	5. Georgia, including Mengrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circassia	Teflis, Amarchia, and Gonie.
Natolia, or the lesser Asia on the west.	1. Natolia Proper	Bursa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephesus
	2. Amasia	Amasia, Trapesond, and Sinope.
	3. Aladulia	Ajazzo and Marat
	4. Caramania	Satalia and Taresso
East of the Levant sea.	Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land.	Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon & Jerusalem.

Mountains.] These are famous in sacred as well as profane writings. The most remarkable are, Olympus, Taurus, and Antitaurus; Caucasus and Ararat; Lebanon and Hermon.

Libanus, is a celebrated mountain of Asia, on the confines of Palestine and Syria Libanus, about 100 leagues in circumference. It has Mesopotamia E. Armenia N. Palestine S. and the Mediterranean W. The ruins of the ancient city of Sidon, are near this mountain. It is composed of 4 enclosures of mountains, which rise one upon the other. The first is very fruitful in grain and fruits; the second is very barren, abounding in nothing but thorns, rocks and flints; the third, though higher than this, enjoys a perpetual spring, the trees being always green there, and the orchards filled with fruit; in a word, it is so agreeable and fertile, that some have called it a *Terrestrial Paradise*. The fourth is so high, that it is almost always covered with snow, so as to be uninhabitable by reason of the great cold. Its cedars have been remarkable from the days of Solomon. But 16 aged ones remain. One of them is thirty-six feet six inches in circumference, and the spread of its branches proportionably extensive. The missionaries in the Levant say the trunk is 36 feet in circumference.

Rivers and Lakes.] The same may be observed of the rivers, which are the Euphrates, Tigris, Orontos, Meander, Sarabat, Kara, and Jordan.

Euphrates, rises in Mount Ararat, in two streams, a few miles to the N. E. of Erzerum, which unite to the S. W. near that city; in its course it separates Aladulia from Armenia, Syria from Diarbekir, and Diarbekir from Arabia; passes through the Arabian Irak, in which it joins the Tigris, about 20 leagues from its mouth, near the town of Carnah, and empties itself into the Persian Gulf, about 50 miles S. E. of Bassora. Its water is remarkably pleasant. It is muddy when first taken up, it soon becomes clear; and is by some preferred to wine or spirits. The tide raises its water more than 30 leagues above its mouth, lon. 66 55 E. lat. 29 50 N. [*Jackson.*]

Jordan, is a river of Palestine rising from lake Phiala in Anti-Libanus. It runs under ground 15 miles, then breaks out at Peneum; passes through Samachomite Lake, anciently called Meron, 6 miles long, 4 broad. Two miles after its leaving the lake, is a stone bridge of 3 arches, called "Jacob's Bridge," supposed to have been built before the days of Jacob. After separating Galilee from Tracontis, it passes through the lake Tiberias; thence, after a course of 65 miles, part of the way through a vast and most horrid desert, receiving the Carith, (on the bank of which Elijah was fed by ravens) and many other tributary streams, it empties into the Dead Sea. It is a very rapid river generally about 4 or 5 rods wide, and 9 feet deep, and except in freshets, runs 2 yards below the brink of its channel. The waters are turbid but very wholesome. [*Mariti, Shaw, Maundrell, Topog. Dict.*]

Asphaltites Lake, known also by the names of the *Salt Sea*, *Dead Sea*, and *Sea of Sodom*, is S. of Jordan, and on the S. E. border of the ancient Canaan. According to Josephus, it is 72 miles long and about 19 broad. Modern travellers, however, make it only 24 miles long, and 6 or 7 broad. The rivers Jordan, Arnon, Kidron and other streams, empty into this Lake. It has no visible communication with the sea. The great quantities of bitumen, slime or mineral pitch in this Lake, render its waters unfit to drink. No fish can live in it. The sulphurous stream affects even the fruit on the shore in some parts. This lake is supposed to occupy the ancient site of Sodom, Gomorrah, Admah, and Zeboim, and the valley of Siddim. After these cities were destroyed in the manner related in the scriptures, it is supposed the spot on which they stood was sunk by an earthquake; and some have related that, when the waters of this lake are low, the ruins of these cities, are still to be seen. When the Saviour speaks of "The lake of fire and brimstone," he is supposed to allude to this lake *Asphaltites*, which is considered, as the lasting monument of those awful showers of fire and brimstone, by which Sodom and Gomorrah, and the other cities of the plain perished for their vile lusts. [*Brown, Mede.*]

Wealth and Commerce.] The Turkish dominions, including, besides the above specified possessions in Europe, the provinces of Asia Minor, Georgia, Mingrelia, Armenia, Bagdad, Aleppo, Damascus, Palæstina, part of Arabia and Egypt, belong to those parts of the world, which enjoy the most delightful climate, and the happiest situation for commerce and the acquisition of opulence. Nature has poured out her gifts on these provinces with profusion. But the tyrannical government now prevailing in this large part of the world being hostile to industry and population, renders this immense empire wretched and indigent.

Besides the finest natural productions which are found in Spain and Italy, Turkey in Europe abounds in horses, and in various sorts of excellent peltry, supplied by the wild beasts in the mountainous and woody parts of the provinces. It produces also a great deal of cotton, mastix, manna, goat's hair, which resembles silk in softness, especially the sort called camel-hair.

The province of Wallachia in particular, produces, in good years, 5,000,000 eymers of wine, the eymer weighing 22½lb. Three small islands in the Archipelago, Methalika, Patrazzo, and Rostizza, yield

about 800,000lb. of currants. Honey and wax is produced in great abundance in Moldavia ; the tenth part of the profits from the hives yield a revenue of 200,000 dollars to the Hospodar, or prince of Moldavia, (Sulzer.) Livadia, Macedonia, and Candia, produce annually upwards of 3,000,000lb. of honey, of which about one fourth is exported. (Sprengel.) Most provinces raise, or might raise, excellent silk in considerable quantities. That which is raised in the province of Macedonia is estimated to amount to 100,000lb. and at Thessalonica, or Salonichi, to the amount of 500,000 piasters, is annually sold. Cotton is likewise found chiefly in Macedonia, which province exports 120,000 balls, sold at 80 piasters each. The French purchase annually 12,000 balls at Salonichi, the English for 400,000, the Italians for 240,000, and the Germans for 1,700,000 piasters. (Sprengel.) Tobacco is exported from the same place to Italy, to the amount of 290,000 piasters.

The provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia possess immense masses of salt rock, connected with the great rock strata of Gallicia and Transylvania ; and the prince of Wallachia gains upwards of 500,000 florins annually by the salt-works at Riamick. (Sulzer.) Moldavia abounds in buffaloes and oxen, of which 40,000 head are sold to the neighbouring provinces ; nearly as many horses are annually sold in this province. (Boscowich.) In the same fertile districts, great numbers of sheep are bred, reckoned to amount to four million. Besides the profits arising from the wool, the skins of these sheep, and skins of goats, are used in making Saffian and Morocco leather. Bosnia and Servia sell about 40,000 hogs annually to Hungary. The wines of Greece, and its olive oil, are very celebrated for their excellence.

In the extensive dominions of Turkey, which are bordered by great ridges of mountains, the mineral kingdom might yield extraordinary riches ; but the science of mining is as much neglected by the Turks as all other sciences. They have, however, begun to search for copper and iron in Wallachia ; and the gold dust, washed down by the rivers of that province, gives sufficient indication of what may be expected to be found in its mountains. The several sorts of marble found in Greece have been highly esteemed in ancient and modern times. Sulphur, alum, saltpetre, asphaltes, and other valuable minerals, are found in plenty.

If we consider the natural riches of the Asiatick provinces and of Egypt, we cease to wonder how the Turks, notwithstanding their aversion to industry and manufactures, are no losers by their trade, of which the balance is rather in their favour. From Turkey the following goods are exported : Cotton, silk, wool, camel yarn, leather, coffee, wine, rice, fruits, tobacco, honey, wax, cattle, marble, &c. The imports consist in woollens, corn, indigo, sugar, cochinelle, spices, glass, hard-ware, and East-India goods. The Turks are no great losers by their trade with France ; they lose not much by their trade with the Dutch ; and they seem to be gainers by that with England. In 1785, the goods exported from Turkey to England amounted to 146,906l. sterl. ; the goods imported from England into Turkey, to only 82,449l. sterl. They are likewise gainers by their trade to Ger-

many and Hungary: The imports from the latter kingdom into Turkey amounted, in 1778 to only 241,773 florins, whereas the Turkish goods sold to Hungary amounted to 1,328,337 florins. From these benefits derived from trade, even with the present inconsiderable shipping employed in it, and notwithstanding the want of manufactures, we may infer how great the profits of commerce might be rendered, if industry should ever be so far encouraged as to bear a just proportion to the natural wealth of the country. At present the Levant trade centres almost entirely in Smyrna and along the Asiatick shore.

Government.] The government of the Turkish empire is despotical; the life and property of the subject depend on the will of the Sultan, who is the only free man in his dominions, and who exacts a blind obedience to his will, as a civil and religious duty. Yet the emperor is restrained, in some measure, by the same religious system on which his arbitrary power is founded, and still more by the intrigues of the principal officers of his court or seraglio, who are possessed of the actual power, of which the Sultan enjoys only the appearance.

The great influence of the army, and, now and then, a sense of oppression which rouses the people to rebellion, are likewise objects of terror and have often proved fatal to these arbitrary monarchs. The Turkish throne is hereditary in the family of Osman: After the extinction of the lineal descendants of this prince, of whom there are few remaining, the right of succession devolves on the family of Gherai, Chan of the Crimea.

The supreme council of state is called the Divan. The regular or ordinary divan is composed of the high officers of state; and, on particular emergencies, an extraordinary divan is held, which consists, besides these officers, of other persons of experience and knowledge of the law, called in by the ministers to assist in their deliberations. At both meetings the Grand Sultan is usually present, but only in an adjoining apartment, where he may hear the advice of his ministers: The president of the divan is the grand vizier as first minister, whose power in the state is exceedingly great, but whose place is very precarious, and generally fatal to the possessor. The provinces of the empire are ruled by governours, called Bashaws, who exercise nearly the same arbitrary power over the subject provinces which the Sultan has over the whole empire. The connection of the distant provinces with the seat of the empire is very weak, and often shaken by rebellions and the quarrels of the Bashaws. All publick offices are bought, and of course generally filled with the worst and most rapacious persons: The Hospodars, or princes of Wallachia and Moldavia, pay very large sums to the Grand Sultan for their dignities, and they indemnify themselves by extortions from their subjects.

The Turkish laws are contained in the Koran, in the code of laws collected by Soliman II.; and, in dubious cases, the decisions of the Mufti, the chief of the Mahometan church, have the authority of laws. Each town has its court of justice, consisting of the superior judge, or *cadi*, who is called *molla* in the larger towns, under whom there is an inferior judge and a clerk. In the provinces, the Bashaws are supreme judges. From the decisions of the magistrates of the towns, appeal

may be made to the *Cadi Leschkires*, or superior judges of the army, in Rumilia and Anadoli. From these, appeal lies in the last instance to a divan, held expressly for that purpose, by the Grand Vizier, at his own house.

The Greeks, subject to the Grand Sultan, have their own courts of justice.

Finances.] The publick revenue amounts to 30,000 dollars, or 89,955 purses, at 500 piasters each.

It is very difficult to state the revenue of the Turkish emperor with any degree of accuracy, as a very considerable part of it is irregularly levied on the subject, and liable to great variations. The *miri*, or publick treasury, is reckoned to receive annually about 20,000,000 dollars. But there are, besides the miri, two other treasuries, the private chatoulle of the emperor, called *chasna*, and the treasury of the Mosques. The ordinary revenue paid annually into the chasna, amounts to 600,000 dollars; but a much larger sum arises from confiscated estates and property, from the exchange and the sale of publick offices, from seizures of the fortunes of rich private persons, to whom the emperor declares himself heir, and from various other extortions.

In 1776, the revenue was collected in the following manner:

		Florins.
1.	Amount of the *Charatsch*, or capitation of such subjects in Europe as are not mussulmen, and who are not under the immediate protection of foreign ambassadors	11,313,000
2.	Charatsch of Asia	8,160,000
3.	——— of Cyprus, Candia, and the Archipelago	1,395,000
4.	——— of Egypt	787,000
5.	Other revenues from Asia and Egypt	850,000
6.	Contributions of the tributary nations of Asia	2,362,500
7.	Tribute of the Hospodars of Wallachia and Moldavia	1,400,000
8.	Domaine of the emperor, including the revenues from fisheries.	2,390,000
9.	Customs at Constantinople, and duty on tobacco	2,820,000
10.	Farm of the salt and mines	12,500,000
11.	Revenue from Mecca and Medina	1,640,000
12.	Extraordinary revenue from inheritance and confiscation	8,170,000
	Upwards of	53,000,000

In the same year the publick expenditure was said to amount only to 44,495,000 florins. This statement is taken from the statistical tables, published at Vienna, the author of which, from the vicinity of that capital to Turkey, was likely to be best acquainted with the present state of the latter. The department of the Treasury, or miri, is divided into twelve bureaux: The first minister of finances is called Defterdar. In every province the officers and collectors of the revenue are very numerous and oppressive.

Army.] It is usually estimated at 300,000 men, nor is it at all difficult to raise so large a number of men in time of war, if all those undisciplined crowds are taken into the account, which flock together from all parts to the standard of Mahomet. But even a regular well

disciplined army of 300,000 men would not be too large for an empire of such extent, and which contains such great numbers of inhabitants. About one half of the above number may be considered as of real use; and this was the actual force of the empire in the beginning of the late Russian war.

Navy.] About 60 ships of war.

In the year 1786, the Turks had actually 30 ships of the line, of 800 men each, and 40 gallies, 140 men each; and this number was intended to be increased.

In any extraordinary exigency the Turks are able to fit out

40 ships of the line of	800 men each
40 gallies	140
20 caravellas	300
100 galliots	60

Total 200 ships of war, and 50,000 sea troops, or leventi. The states under the protection of the Porte, viz. Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, are obliged to furnish ten ships of the line.

Religion.] The established religion in this empire is the Mahometan, of the sect of the Sunnites: The heretical sect of the Shaites is, however, tolerated; all other religions are likewise included in this system of toleration, on paying a certain capitation. Among the Christians residing in Turkey, those of the orthodox Greek religion are the most numerous, and they enjoy several privileges; they can, for instance, be advanced to dignities and posts of trust and profit; as, to the princely dignity of Moldavia and Wallachia, to the place of body physicians and interpreters of the imperial court. The Greeks are, in religious matters, subject to the patriarch of Constantinople, who is considered as the chief of the Greek church and nation, and whose authority and jurisdiction is extensive. Other branches of the Greek church are the Armenians, Nestorians, Maronites, Coptes, and others.

The Turkish clergy are numerous: This body is composed of all the learned in that empire; and they are likewise the only teachers of the law, who must be consulted in all important cases. In their capacity of lawyers, or interpreters of the Koran, which, in most cases, is the code of laws, the clergy are called *ylana*, or the instructed in the law. The Grand Sultan himself as caliph, or successor to the prophet Mahomet, is their head; but their actual chief is the Mufti, an officer of great authority and political influence. The Sultan has the power of deposing the Mufti, but he cannot take his property from him, which is considered as sacred. The successors or descendants of Mahomet, who are called emirs, or sheriffs, enjoy the same privilege. Those persons or priests who are employed in the rites of the publick worship, are called Imans; and the Mahometan temples are known by the name of Mosques. There are, among the Turks, eight religious orders; their monks are called Dervises, and lead, in general, a very austere life. The Mosques are very richly endowed, and the estates which they have acquired are become sacred, and cannot be taken away even by the most arbitrary despots. Many opulent persons assign their estates over to the Mosques, even in their lifetime, and pay them a small annual rent, which ensures them the pos-

session during life; after their death the whole is the property of the church.

Jews are very numerous in Turkey; They are subject to a chief of their own nation, called Cochan Pascha, whose power over them is even greater than that which the Patriarch exercises over the Greek Christians. Gypsies are found in all provinces. Upon the whole, the number of Mahometans is greater than that of the subjects of other religious denominations.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs and Diversions. The population of this great country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the best geographers been able to ascertain it, because of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not so great as it was before the christian era, or even under Roman emperors; owing to various causes, and above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reasons, and particularly because the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practised, are incomparably more prolifick than the Turks, notwithstanding the rigid subjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cause of depopulation. The Turkish emperor, however, has more subjects than any two European princes. The probable number of inhabitants we have mentioned in the table.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robust men; when young, their complexions are fair, and their faces handsome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handsome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour, the Turks are rather hypochondriack, grave, sedate and passive: In matters of religion, tenacious, superstitious, and morose. The morals of the Asiatick Turks are preferable to those of the European. They are hospitable to strangers: They are likewise said to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and publick spirit is most conspicuous in their building caravanseras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are destitute of accommodation, for the refreshment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the same laudable view they search out the best springs, and dig wells, which in those countries, are a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks sit cross-legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are simple and confined, seldom reaching without the walls of their own houses; where they sit conversing with their women, drinking coffee, smoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curiosity to be informed of the state of their own or any other country. If a vizier, bashaw, or other officer, is turned out, or strangled, they say no more on the occasion, than that there will be a new vizier or governour, seldom enquiring into the reason of the disgrace of the former minister. They have few printed books, and seldom read any other than the Koran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negociated in Turkey without presents; and here justice may be commonly bought and sold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they sup at five in the winter, and six in the summer, and this is their princi-

pal meal. Among the great people, their dishes are served up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to use gold or silver spoons. Their victuals are always high seasoned. Rice is the common food of the lower sort, and sometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief dish is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the soup is high seasoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, sherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them sensations resembling those of intoxication. Guests of higher rank sometimes have their beards perfumed by a female slave of the family. They are temperate and sober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the use of wine; though in private many of them indulge themselves in the use of strong liquors. Their common salutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breast. They sleep in linen waistcoats and drawers upon matrasses, and cover themselves with a quilt. Few or none of the considerable inhabitants of this vast empire have any notion of walking, or riding, either for health or diversion. The most religious among them find, however, sufficient exercise when they conform themselves to the frequent ablutions, prayers and rites prescribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diversions consist in shooting at a mark or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purposes, that they may know the strength of their dependents. Within doors, the chess or draught boards are their usual amusements; and if they play at chance games they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

Dress.] The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they sleep. Their shirts are without collar or wristband, and over them they throw a long vest, which they tie with a sash, and over the vest they wear a loose gown somewhat shorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their stockings; and instead of shoes they wear slippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or house. They suffer no Christians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dress of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear stiffened caps upon their heads, with horns something like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are so muffled up as not to be known by their nearest relations. Such of the women as are virtuous make no use of paint to heighten their beauty, or to disguise their complexion; but they often tinge their hands and feet with *henna* which gives them a deep yellow. The men make use of the same expedient to colour their beards.

Marriages.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negociated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a sum of money, a license is taken out from the cadi, or proper magistrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and the money is gener-

ally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain. Accordingly, besides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a kind of seraglio of women: But all these indulgencies are sometimes insufficient to gratify their unnatural desires.

Funerals.] The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpse is attended by the relations, chanting passages from the Koran; and after being deposited in a mosque, (for so they call their temples) they are buried in a field by the iman or priest, who pronounces a funeral sermon at the time of the interment. The male relations express their sorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and, in mourning for a husband, they wear a particular head dress, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

Learning and Learned Men.] The Turks, till of late, professed a sovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and sciences, produces at present, besides Turks, numerous bands of Christian bishops, priests, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themselves, and are divided into various absurd sects of what they call Christianity. The education of the Turks seldom extends farther than reading the Turkish language and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Some of them understand astronomy, so far as to calculate the time of an eclipse; but the number of these being very small, they are looked upon as extraordinary persons. There appears to be nothing in Turkey which deserves the name of university or college.

Antiquities and Curiosities natural and artificial.] These are so various that they have furnished matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. These countries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture and sculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have suffered from the Europeans, seem to have diminished their number. They are more or less perfect, according to the air, soil, or climate, in which they stand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the finest temples are converted into Turkish mosques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than those which remain in ruins. Amidst such a plenitude of curiosities, all that can be done here is to select some of the most striking; and I shall begin with Balbeck and Palmyra, which form the pride of all antiquity.

Balbeck is situated on a rising plain, between Tripoli in Syria and Damascus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, and in the Heliopolis of Cæle Syria. Its remains of antiquity display, according to the best judges, the boldest plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpressibly superb, though disfigured by two Turkish towers. The hexagonal court behind it is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. Their walls were adorned with Corinthian pilasters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the same taste and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now so ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three

pieces joined together, by iron pins, without cement. Some of those pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the sordid Turks are daily at work to destroy the columns, for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relief, expressing the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors, and part of the ancient mythology. To the west of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionick order, but disfigured with Turkish mosques and houses. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably beautiful and stupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of these immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon; but some make them so modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different eras; and though that prince and his successors may have rebuilt some part of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole, seem to fix their foundation to a period before the Christian era, but without mounting to the ancient times of the Jews or the Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek style in building and ornamenting. Balbeck is at present a little city, encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5,000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the ancient ruins. A free-stone quarry, in the neighbourhood, furnished the stones for the body of the temple; and one of the stones not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet 5 inches deep, and reduced to our measure, is 1,135 tons. A coarse, white marble quarry, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the Desert, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petræ, about 33 degrees N. lat. and 200 miles to the south-east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and, opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the sun lies in ruins; but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, which have been drawn and published by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, paid it a visit some years ago, purposely to preserve some remembrance of such a curiosity. As those drawings, or copies from them, are now common, we must refer the reader to them, especially as he can form no very adequate ideas of ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonnade extending 4,000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticos, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest style, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so dispersed and disjointed, that it is impossible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. These striking ruins are contrasted by the miserable huts of the wild Arabs, who reside in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that so superb a city, formerly 10 miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of what now are tracts of barren uninhabited sands. Nothing, however, is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eastern world; and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the western nations, for the merchandizes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have turned the more fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiaticks think that Palmyra, as well as Balbeck, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history it is not mentioned before the time of Mark Anthony; and its most superb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for some time, and Longinus, the celebrated critick, was her secretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others the excellent Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures in repairing the temple of the sun, the majestick ruins of which have been mentioned. This, it must be acknowledged, is but a very lame account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach above the Christian era, though there can be no doubt that the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendour, but without effect, for it dwindled by degrees to its present wretched state. It has been observed very justly, that its architecture and the proportions of its columns are by no means equal in purity to those of Balbeck.

Nothing can be more futile than the boasted antiquities shewn by the Greek and Armenian priests in and near Jerusalem, which is well known to have been so often razed to the ground, and rebuilt anew, that no scene of our Saviour's life and sufferings can be ascertained; and yet those ecclesiasticks subsist by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every spot mentioned in the Old and New Testaments. They are, it is true, under severe contributions to the Turks, but the trade still goes on, though much diminished in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, said to be built by Helena, mother to Constantine the Great, is still standing, and of tolerable good architecture; but its different divisions, and the dispositions made round it, are chiefly calculated to support the forgeries of its keepers. Various churches, built by Helena, are found in Palestine; but the country is so altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the most despicable of any in Asia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any vestiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon. But let a fertile country be under the frowns of Heaven, and abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs, it will in time become a desert. Thus oppression soon thinned the delicious

plains of Italy; and the noted countries of Greece and Asia the Less, once the glory of the world, are now nearly destitute of learning, arts and people.

This place, so celebrated in the history of mankind, will ever be interesting to the heart of sensibility. The divine mission of Jesus Christ is authenticated in every dismal street. The naked rocks and uninhabited hills proclaim the truth of christianity. Jesus Christ foretold the most deplorable calamities which the place has suffered. It is impossible to read the prophecies of Christ and the history of Josephus, and retain a reasonable doubt. Christ declared that the place "should be trodden down of the *Gentiles*." To this day Gentiles possess the city. It is inhabited by Turks, Arabs and Christians. The Jews do not choose to dwell here; they say it must undergo a conflagration and inundation when the Messiah comes to purify it from the defilements of Christians and Mahometans.

When Julian, to defeat the prophecy of its being "trodden by Gentiles," invited the Jews to return, and appropriated large sums to rebuild their Temple, balls of fire burst from the ground and drove the labourers from the work. So impossible is it to falsify scripture.

Mecca and Medina are curiosities only through the superstition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houses or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a sorry appearance, though erected on the spot where the great prophet is said to have been born. The same may be said of the mosque at Medina, where that impostor was buried; so that the vast sums spent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in visiting those places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uses. I shall not amuse the reader with any accounts of the spot which is said to have formed Paradise, and to have been situated between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where there are some tracts which undoubtedly deserve that name. The different ruins, some of them inexpressibly magnificent, that are to be found in those immense regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; so great is the ignorance in which they have been buried these thousand years past. It is indeed easy to pronounce whether the style of their buildings be Greek, Roman or Saracen; but all other information must come from their inscriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Ismir) contains many valuable antiquities. The same may be said of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in antiquity, and now known only by geographical observations. The seat of old Troy cannot be distinguished by the smallest vestige, and is known only by its being opposite to the isle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook, which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble, built in honour of Augustus Cæsar, at Milasso in Caria, and a few structures of the same kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are still entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latichea, have suffered very little from time or barbarism; and some travellers think that they discern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Ephesus.

Chief Cities, Mosques, and other Buildings.] These are very numerous, and at the same time very insignificant, because they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Scanderoon stands upon the site of old Alexandria, but is now almost depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, preserves a respectable rank among the cities of the Asiatick Turkey. It is still the capital of Syria, and is superior in its buildings and conveniences to most of the Turkish cities. Its houses, as usual in the east, consist of a large court, with a dead wall to the street, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain of the same in the middle. Aleppo and its suburbs are seven miles in compass, standing on eight small hills, on the highest top of which the citadel or castle is erected, but of no great strength. An old wall and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, surround the city, which contains 235,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Christians, and 5,000 Jews. It is furnished with most of the conveniences of life, excepting good water within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aqueduct, distant about four miles, said to have been erected by the empress Helena. The streets are narrow, but well paved with large square stones, and are kept very clean. Their gardens are pleasant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig and pistachio trees; but the country round it rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and transact their business in caravanseras, or large square buildings, containing their ware-houses, lodging-rooms, and compting-houses. The city abounds in neat, and some of them magnificent mosques, publick bagnios, which are very refreshing, and bazars, or market-places, which are formed into long, narrow arches, or covered streets, with little shops, as in other parts of the East. Their coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury; and their sweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendour and safety than in any other city of the Turkish empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not used here, but persons of quality ride on horse-back with a number of servants before them, according to their rank. The English, French and Dutch, have consuls, who are much respected, and appear abroad, (the English especially) with marks of distinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to sleep in the open air, here, all over Arabia, and many other parts of the East, for which reason their houses are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaintance those nations had with astronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains some parts of the holy scripture. As the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkish cities.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far it is supposed from the site of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular square, and rudely fortified; but the con-

veniency of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and it has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and western caravans. The houses of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the freer circulation of the air; many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glass, and the ceiling ornamented with chequered work. Most of the houses have also a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange trees. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 15 or 20,000. Their bazars, in which the tradesmen have their shops, are tolerably handsome, large and extensive, filled with shops of all kinds of merchandize, to the number of 12,000. These were erected by the Persians, when they were in possession of the place, as were also their bagnios, and almost every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. In this city are five mosques, two of which are well built, and have handsome domes, covered with varnished tiles of different colours. Two chapels are permitted for those of the Romish and Greek persuasions. On the north-west corner of the city stands the castle, which is of white stone, and commands the river, consisting of curtains and bastions, on which some large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each bastion; but in the year 1779, they were so honey-combed and bad, as to be supposed not to support firing. Below the castle by the water-side, is the palace of the Turkish governour; and there are several summer-houses on the river which make a fine appearance. The Arabians who inhabited the city under the caliphs, were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

About 15 leagues to the south of Bagdad stood the celebrated city of Babylon, so often mentioned in history and prophecy. Some have very absurdly confounded the two places, calling Bagdad, Babylon; the cause of this error was, that the Tigris and Euphrates unite before they enter the Persian Gulf, and are often mentioned as the same river. But Bagdad is certainly on the Tigris: Babylon was certainly on the Euphrates. The splendour of Babylon once surpassed description; her walls were 87 feet thick, 350 high, 15 miles square, and the gates brass. Her towers, temples and palaces rose like mountains. Such a city, one would imagine, was in no danger of becoming desolate. Yet Jeremiah prophesied—"Because of the wrath of the Lord, it shall not be inhabited, but it shall be wholly desolate." Isaiah prophesied that Babylon should be destroyed, and "never again inhabited; but wild beasts of the deserts shall lie there, and their houses shall be full of doleful creatures." Let us now ask several travellers whether these things have come to pass? If they have, the Bible is from heaven. Benjamin, a Jew, was there in the 12th century, and says, "Babylon is now laid waste, and men fear to enter there, on account of the serpents and scorpions." Another traveller was there 1574. He mentions various ruins, and says, "they are so full of venomous creatures that no one dares approach nearer than half a league from them, excepting for two months in the winter, when these animals stir not from their holes." Petrus Vallensio was there in 1616, and says, "that in the middle of a vast plain, about a quarter of a league from the Euphrates, appears a heap of ruined buildings, like a huge mountain, its

situation and form corresponding with that pyramid, which Strabo calls the tower of Belus, and is in all likelihood the tower of Nimrod, in Babylon." Tavernier relates—"that at the parting of the Tigris is the foundation of a city:—there are some of the walls standing, upon which 6 coaches may go abreast. The chronicles of the country say "here stood Babylon." Hanway, who travelled in 1743, says, "these ruins are so much effaced, that there are hardly any vestiges of them to point out their situation." Another late traveller says, "there is not at present a stone to tell where Babylon was situated." With such astonishing exactness has God verified his threatening—"To sweep Babylon with the besom of destruction."

[*Newton. Prideaux.*]

Ancient Assyria is now called the Turkish Curdistan, though part of it is subject to the Persians. The capital is Curdistan; the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins, according to the predictions of scripture. Curdistan is said to be for the most part cut out of a mountain, and is the residence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orfa, formerly Edessa, is the capital of the fine province of Mesopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly supported by a manufacture of Turkey leather. Mousul is also in the same province, a large place situated on the west shore of the Tigris, opposite to where Nineveh formerly stood.

Georgia, or Gurgistan, now no longer subject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Christians, a brave, warlike, race of men. Their capital Teflis, is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance, its inhabitants being about 30,000; (50,000 Brooks.) It is situated at the foot of a mountain, by the side of the river Kur, and is surrounded by strong walls, except on the side of the river. It has a large fortress on the declivity of the mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garrison consists of native Persians. There are fourteen churches in Teflis, six of which belong to the Georgians, and the rest to the Armenians; the Mahometans who are here, have no mosques. In the neighbourhood of the city are many pleasant houses, and fine gardens. The Georgians in general are by some travellers said to be the handsomest people in the world; and some think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the small pox. They make no scruple of selling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many distinguishing liberties and privileges. Lately they have formed an alliance with Russia, and claimed its protection.

The ancient cities of Damascus, Tyre and Sidon, still retain part of their former trade. Damascus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is inexpressibly beautiful. It contains a fine mosque, which was formerly a christian church. It still is famous for its steel works, such as sword blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is said to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture also those beautiful silks called Damasks, from their city, and carry on a considerable traffick in raw and worked silk, rose-water, extracted from the famous damask roses, fruits and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is still beautiful, especially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, now Said, which

likewise lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has still some trade, and a tolerable harbour. The town is surrounded with a stone wall, a citadel on the land side, and another towards the sea. The houses are built chiefly of stone, and are two stories high. The inhabitants are about 16,000, chiefly Christians of the Greek church; and the place is the seat of a bishop of that persuasion. There are in the town two publick baths, and two mosques. It stands on a neck of land over against Tyre, and both form a bay of about 16 miles in breadth. Tyre, now called Sur, about 20 miles distant from Sidon, so famous formerly for its rich die, is now uninhabited. A few fishermen at times repair here and shelter themselves in the ruins of its ancient grandeur. In this event, prophecy is literally fulfilled, and the divinity of revelation fully established. When in the height of her splendour, when the thing was to appearance extremely improbable, Ezekiel declared that her walls should be destroyed, her towers broken down, and the ground on which she stood should be like the top of a rock—"That it should be a place for the spreading of nets in the midst of the sea." There are strong walls, on the land side, of stone, 18 feet high, and seven broad, not yet fallen. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half; and Christians and Mahometans make the number of 500. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are still visible.

The pavements of the old city, Mr. Bruce tells us, he saw, and observes that they were 7½ feet lower than the ground upon which the present city stands. Passing by Tyre (says our author, who deserves much praise for some happy elucidations of scripture) I came to be a mournful witness of the truth of that prophecy, That Tyre, Queen of Nations, should be a rock for fishers to dry their nets on.* Two wretched fishermen, with miserable nets, having just given over their occupation with very little success, I engaged, at the expense of their nets, to drag in those places, where they said shell-fish might be caught, in hopes to have brought out one of the famous purple fish. I did not succeed, but in this I was, I believe, as lucky as the old fishers had ever been. The purple fish at Tyre seems to have been only a concealment of their knowledge of cochineal, as, had they depended upon the fish for their die, if the whole city of Tyre applied to nothing else but fishing, they would not have coloured twenty yards of cloth in a year.†

Natolia, or Asia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amasia, all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman history, are now, through the Turkish indolence and tyranny, either forsaken, or a theatre of ruins. The sites of ancient cities are still discernible; and so luxurious is nature in those countries, that in many places she triumphs over her forlorn condition. The selfish Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themselves; and their gardens and summer-houses fill up the circuit of their most flourishing cities. The most judicious travellers, upon an attentive

* Ezek. chap. xxvi. 5.
† Bruce's Travels, Vol. I. Introduction, p. lix. and Maundrel.

survey of these countries, fully vindicate all that has been said by sacred and profane writers of their beauty, strength, fertility and population. Even Palestine and Judea, the most despicable at present of all those countries, lie buried within the luxuries of their own soil. The Turks seem particularly fond of representing Judea in the most dreadful colours, and have formed a thousand falsehoods concerning it, which, being artfully propagated by some European writers, have imposed upon weak Christians.*

Under the government of Sheik Daher, the ally of the famous Ali Bey, some part of Palestine revived. He enlarged the buildings and walls of St. John de Acre, formerly Ptolemais, and shewed great indulgence to the Christians. Its inhabitants were lately computed at 40,000. Caifa, which stands on the declivity of Mount Carmel, distant about 20 miles from Acre, was also new built and enlarged by Daher. The ancient Joppa, now Jaffa, 50 miles west from Jerusalem, stands on a rocky hill, has a harbour for small vessels, and its circumference is about two miles. The number of inhabitants is 7,000; the western part of the town is inhabited by Christians. The present state of Ramah is deplorable, its walls in decay, and most of the houses empty, though the number of inhabitants is still between 3 and 4,000. Not a house is standing of the once magnificent city of Cesarea, but the remains of the walls testify its former grandeur. Azotus is about two miles in circumference, the inhabitants are near 3,000, and mostly Mahometans: An old structure is shewn here, with fine marble pillars, which is said to be the house that Samson pulled down, when insulted by the Philistines. Gaza is still respectable; it extends from east to west three miles, and is a mile in breadth, divided into the old and new town. The last is inhabited by the inferior Turks and Arabs. The number of inhabitants is reckoned to be 26,000, (2,000 according to Walker and Crutwell.) It is about five miles from the sea, and outside the town is a market for the country people to dispose of their commodities to the inhabitants, for they are not permitted to enter the town. The country around is very fertile, but its chief produce is corn, oil, wine, honey, bees-wax, flax and cotton.

Titles.] The emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of eastern magnificence. He is styled by his subjects, *The Shadow of God, a God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Disposer of all earthly Crowns, &c.*

* The late reverend Dr. Shaw, professor of Greek at Oxford, who seems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the soundest philosophy to make a most just observation, says, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very best parts of Syria and Phœnicia, because the soil is generally much richer, and, every thing considered, yields larger crops. Therefore, the barrenness, says he, of which some authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who possess it, and the perpetual discords and depredations of the petty princes who share this fine country. Indeed, the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Palestine, (says Mr. Wood) we have often seen the husbandman sowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the seed." And, after all, whoever sows, is uncertain whether he shall ever reap the harvest.

Court and Seraglio.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths who are designed for the state, the army, or the navy; but they are seldom preferred till about 40 years of age, and they rise by their merit. They are generally the children of Christian parents, either taken in war, purchased, or presents from the viceroys and governours of distant provinces, the most beautiful, well made, and sprightly children that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved by the grand signior, before they are sent to the colleges or seminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius and abilities.

The ladies of the seraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces and the Greek islands, most of them the children of Christian parents. The brave prince Heraclius, hath for some years past abolished the infamous tribute of children of both sexes, which Georgia formerly paid every year to the Porte. The number of women in the Harem, depends on the taste of the reigning monarch or sultan. Selim had 2,000, Achmet had but 300, and the present sultan has nearly 1,600 On their admission they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to sew and embroider, musick, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. They all sleep in separate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptress. Their chief governess is called *Katun Kiaja*, or governess of the noble young ladies. There is not one servant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation; the last that has entered serves her who preceded her, and herself. These ladies are scarcely ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand signior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are enclosed with lattices and linen curtains; and when they go by land they are put into close chariots, and signals are made at certain distances, to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. The boats of the Harem, which carry the grand signior's wives, are manned with 24 rowers, and have white covered tilts, shut alternately by Venetian blinds. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converse by signs with great quickness, and some dwarfs who are exhibited for the diversion of his majesty.

When he permits the women to walk in the gardens of the seraglio, all people are ordered to retire, and on every side there is a guard of black eunuchs, with sabres in their hands, while others go the rounds in order to hinder any person from seeing them. If unfortunately any one is found in the garden, even through ignorance or inadvertence, he is certainly killed, and his head brought to the feet of the grand signior, who gives a great reward to the guard for their vigilance. Sometimes the grand signior passes into the gardens to amuse himself, when the women are there: And it is then that they make use of their utmost efforts, by dancing, singing, seducing gestures, and amorous blandishments, to ensnare the affections of the monarch. It is not permitted that the monarch should take a virgin to his bed except during the solemn festival, and on occasions of some extraordinary rejoicings, or the arrival of some good news. Upon such occasions, if the

sultan chooses a new companion to his bed, he enters into the apartment of the women, who are ranged in files by the governesses, to whom he speaks, and intimates the person he likes best: The ceremony of the handkerchief, which the grand signior is said to throw at the girl that he elects, is an idle tale, without any foundation. As soon as the grand signior has chosen the girl that he has destined to be the partner of his bed, all the others follow her to the bath, washing and perfuming her, and dressing her superbly, conducting her singing, dancing, and rejoicing to the bed-chamber of the grand signior, who is generally, on such an occasion, already in bed. Scarcely has the new-elected favourite entered the chamber, introduced by the grand eunuch who is upon guard, than she kneels down, and when the sultan calls her, she creeps into bed to him at the foot of the bed, if the sultan does not order her by special grace, to approach by the side: After a certain time, upon a signal given by the sultan, the governess of the girls, with all her suit, enters the apartment, and takes her back again, conducting her with the same ceremony to the women's apartments; and if by good fortune she becomes pregnant, and is delivered of a boy, she is called asaki sultaness, that is to say, sultaness-mother; for the first son she has the honour to be crowned, and she has the liberty of forming her court. Eunuchs are also assigned for her guard, and for her particular service. No other ladies though delivered of boys, are either crowned, or maintained with such costly distinction as the first: However, they have their service apart, and handsome appointments. After the death of the sultan, the mothers of the male children are shut up in the old seraglio, from whence they can never come out any more, unless some one of their sons ascend the throne. Baron de Tott informs us, that the female slave who becomes the mother of a sultan, and lives long enough to see her son mount the throne, is the only woman who at that period, acquires the distinction of *Sultana Mother*: She is till then in the interior of her prison, with her son. The title of *Bache Kadun*, principal women, is the first dignity of the grand signior's Harem, and she has a larger allowance than those who have the title of second, third, and fourth women, which are the four free women the Koran allows.

History.] For the best history of the Turks, the reader is referred to "The history of the Turkish or Ottoman Empire," in 4 vols. 8vo. Translated from the French of Mignot, by A. Hawkins, Esq. Printed in 1787, and sold by Mr. Stockdale, London.

It is computed that in the war between Russia and Austria on the one part, and Turkey on the other, which terminated 1791, Russia lost 100,000 men, Austria 130,000, and Turkey 200,000. Selim III. Grand Signior, born in 1761, succeeded to the throne of Turkey on the death of his uncle, the late Sultan, April 6th, 1789.

TARTARY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			
Length 4000	between	50° and 150° east longitude.	
Breadth 2400		30° and 72° north latitude.	

Boundaries.] IT would be deceiving the reader to desire him to depend upon the accounts given us by geographers of the extent, limits, and situation of these vast regions. Even the empress of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her precise limits with the Chinese, the Persians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fullest extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean, on the North; by the Pacifick Ocean, on the East; by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian Sea, on the South; and by Muscovy on the West.

Grand Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
North-east division	Kamschatka Tartars	Kamtschatka	
	Jakutskoi Tartars	Jakutskoi	
South-east division	Bratski	Bratski	985,380
	Thibet and Mogul Tartars	Thibet, Polon, Kudak	
North-west division	Samoieda	Mangasia	
	Ostiack	Kortskoi	
South-west division	Circassian and Astrachan Tartary	Terki, Astrachan	
Middle division	Siberia	Tobolsk	
	Kalmuck Tartary	Bokharia	850,000
	Usbeck Tartary	Samarcand	339,840

Kamtschatka is a great peninsula, which extends from North to South about seven degrees thirty minutes. It is divided into four districts, Bolcheresk, Tigilskaia, Krepost, Verchnei or Upper Kamtschatkoi Ostrog, and Nishnei or Lower Kamtschatkoi Ostrog.

Mountains.] The principal mountains are Caucasus in Circassia, and the mountains of Taurus and Ararat so contiguous to it, that they appear like a continuation of the same mountain, which crosses all Asia, from Mongrelia to the Indies; and the mountains of Stolp, in the north.

Seas.] These are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacifick Ocean, the Caspian Sea and Sea of Aral.

The Caspian sea is 700 miles long, and from one to two hundred broad. At no very remote period this sea is supposed to have extended to the lake of Aral. The Wolga, and many other important rivers empty themselves into the Caspian. Bakee is the best harbour in the Caspian. The sea or lake of Aral is 100 miles E. from the Caspian. It is 200 miles long and 70 broad. It receives the Sihon and Gihon and several other streams. [*Pinkerton.*]

Rivers.] The principal rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of two thousand miles; the Oby, which divides Asia from Europe; the Tabol, Irtis, Genesa, or Jenska; the Burrumpooter, the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

Air, Climate, Soil and Produce.] The air of this country is very different, by reason of its vast extent from north to south; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctick polar circle, and the southern being in the same latitudes with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova-Zembla and the Russia Lapland are most uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with snow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholesome marshes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thicknesses. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air pure and wholesome; and Mr. Tooke observes, that its inhabitants in all probability would live to an extreme old age, if they were not so much addicted to an immoderate use of intoxicating liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats and barley, almost to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radishes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well; but scarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit trees to bear have hitherto been in vain; but there is reason to believe that industry and patience may at length overcome the rudeness of the climate. Currants and strawberries of several sorts are said to grow here in as great perfection as in the English gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various eatable roots, are found very generally here; but there are no bees in all Siberia. Astrachan and the southern parts of Tartary are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than industry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almost all the kinds known in Europe, especially grapes, which are reckoned the largest and finest in the world. Their summers are very dry; and from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is pestered, and the soil sometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locusts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Russian ambassador to China, represents some parts of Tartary as desirable and fertile countries, the grass growing spontaneously to an amazing height. The country of Thibet is the highest in Asia, and is a part of that elevated tract which gives rise to the rivers of India and China, and those of Siberia and other parts of Tartary.

Capt. Turner, who lately visited *Tibet*, (as he spells the word) on an embassy from Calcutta, and who, on his way passed through the kingdom of *Bootan*, describes the two countries, in contrast, as follows:

"*Bootan* presents to the view, nothing but the most mis-shapen irregularities; mountains covered with eternal verdure, and rich with abundant forests of large and lofty trees. Almost every favourable aspect of them, coated with the smallest quantity of soil, is cleared and adapted to cultivation, by being shelved into horizontal beds: Not a slope or narrow slip of land between the ridges lies unimproved. There is scarcely a mountain, whose base is not washed by some rapid torrent; and many of the loftiest bear populous villages,

amidst orchards and other plantations, on their summits and on their sides. It combines in its extent, the most extravagant traits of rude nature and laborious art.

"*Tibet*, on the other hand, strikes the traveller at first sight, as one of the least favoured countries under heaven, and appears to be, in a great measure, incapable of culture. It exhibits only low rocky hills (without any visible vegetation) or extensive arid plains, both of the most stern and stubborn aspect, promising full as little as they produce.

"Its climate is cold and bleak in the extreme, from the severe effects of which, the inhabitants are obliged to seek refuge in sheltered valies and hollows, or amidst the warmest aspects of the rocks. Yet perhaps, Providence, in its impartial distribution of blessings, has bestowed on each country a tolerably equal share. The advantages that one possesses in fertility, and in the richness of its forests and its fruits, are amply counterbalanced in the other by its multitudinous flocks, and in valuable mines. As one seems to possess the *pabulum* of vegetable, in the other we find a superabundance of animal, life. The variety and quantity of wild fowl, game, and beasts of prey, flocks and herds in Tibet, are astonishing. In Bootan, except domestick creatures, nothing of the sort is to be seen. I recollect (says our author) meeting with no wild animal, except the monkey, in all my travels (through Bootan;) and of game, I saw only a few pheasants, once, near Chuka." [*Turner's Embassy to Tibet.*]

Metals and Minerals.] It is said that Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, jasper, lapis lazuli, and loadstones; a sort of large teeth found here creates some dispute among the naturalists, whether they belong to elephants or are a marine production; their appearance is certainly whimsical and curious, when polished with art and skill.

Animals.] These are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the north parts of Europe. Their horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy: As they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally headstrong. Near Astrachan there is a bird called by the Russians *buba*, of a grey colour, and something larger than a swan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart, or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and on seeing a shoal or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings and drives them to a shallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going ashore, eats them, or carries them to the young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

The forests of Siberia are well stocked with a variety of animals, some of which are not to be found in other countries. These supply the inhabitants with food and clothes; and, at the same time, furnish them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be considered as the native country of black foxes, sables and ermines, the skins of which are superior to those of any part of the world. Horses and cattle are in great plenty, and sold at low prices.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, Diversions and Dress. We can form no probable guess as to the number of inhabitants in Tartary; but from many circumstances we must con-

clude, that they are far from being proportioned to the extent of their country. They are in general strong made, stout men; their faces broad, their noses flattish, their eyes small and black, but very quick; their beards are scarcely visible, as they continually thin them by pulling out the hairs by the roots. M. Le Clerc's account of the Tartars, (or Tatars as he calls them) just published, is curious. He obtained the information on which it is founded, from two princes and several Mourzas of that nation. Their origin is the same with that of the ancient Turks; and Turk was the general denomination of this people until the time that Zingis Khan made himself master of the North of Asia; nay, they still retain this title among themselves, though after the period now mentioned, the neighbouring nations give to all their tribes the general appellation of Tartars. The term *horde*, according to him, does not signify properly a tribe; it denotes a tribe assembled, either to march against the enemy, or for other political reasons.

The beauty of the Circassian women is a kind of staple commodity in that country; for parents there make no scruple of selling their daughters, to recruit the seraglios, or rather *harems*, of the great men of Turkey and Persia. They are purchased, when young, by merchants, and taught such accomplishments as suit their capacities, to render them more valuable against the day of sale.

According to Mr. Bruce, the Circassian women are extremely well shaped, with exceeding fine features, smooth, clear complexions, and beautiful black eyes, which with their black hair hanging in two tresses, one on each side the face, give them a most lovely appearance. They wear a black coif on their heads, covered with a fine white cloth tied under the chin. During the summer they go almost naked. They have the reputation of being very chaste, though they seldom want opportunity to be otherwise: For it is an established point of good manners among them, that as soon as any person comes in to speak to the wife, the husband goes out of the house; but whether this continency of theirs proceeds from their own generosity, to recompense their husbands for the confidence they put in them, or has its foundation only in fame, I pretend not to determine. Their language they have in common with the other neighbouring Tartars, although the chief people among them are not ignorant of the Russian: The apparel of the men of Circassia is much the same with that of the Nagayans, only their caps are something larger, and their cloaks being likewise of coarse cloth or sheep-skins, are fastened only at the neck with a string, and as they are not large enough to cover their whole body, they turn them round according to the wind and weather.

The Tartars are in general a wandering sort of people; in their peregrinations they set out in the spring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting spot, they live upon it till all its grass and verdure is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Russians, Persians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchase cloths, silks, stuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanicks, except those who

make arms. They avoid all labour as the greatest slavery; their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horses. If they are angry with a person, they wish he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Russian. Among themselves they are very hospitable, and wonderfully so to strangers and travellers, who confidentially put themselves under their protection. They are naturally of an easy, cheerful temper, always disposed to laughter, and seldom depressed by care and melancholy. When any of their people are infirm through great age, or seized with distempers reckoned incurable, it is said they make a small hut for the patient near some river, in which they leave him with some provisions, and seldom or never return to visit him. On such occasions they say they do their parents a good office, in sending them to a better world. Notwithstanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, especially towards the south, are tractable, humane, and are susceptible of pious and virtuous sentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their submission to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has distinguished them in all ages. History tells us, that Darius, king of Persia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius sent an ambassador to demand where it was they proposed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting. They returned for answer, with a spirit peculiar to that people, "They had no cities or cultivated fields, for the defence of which they should give him battle; but when once he was come to the place of their fathers' monuments, he should understand in what manner the Scythians used to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horsemanship from their infancy; they seldom appear on foot. They are dexterous in shooting at a mark, insomuch that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will split a pole with an arrow, though at a considerable distance. The dress of the men is very simple and fit for action; it generally consists of a short jacket, with narrow sleeves made of deer's skin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half sunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the smoke, and benches round the fire to sit or lie upon. This seems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eastward, to the Japenese ocean. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family burrows itself as it were under ground: and we are told, that so sociable are they in their dispositions, that they make subterraneous communications with each other, so that they may be said to live in an invisible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horse flesh, especially if it be young, and a little tainted, which makes their cabins extremely nauseous. Though horse flesh be preferred raw by some northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been smoked and dried. The Tartars purchase their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or slave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes the wife's son is always preferred to the succession. After a wife is turned of forty, she is employed in menial duties as another

servant, and as such must attend the young wives who succeed to their places; nor is it uncommon, in some of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter.

The descendants of the old inhabitants of Siberia are still most of them idolaters. They consist of many nations, entirely differing from each other in their manner of living, religion, language, and countenances. But in this they agree, that none of them follow agriculture, which is carried on by some Tartars, and such as are converted to Christianity. A few of them breed cattle, and others follow hunting. The population of Siberia has been much increased since it became a Russian province; for the Russians have founded therein a number of towns, fortresses, and villages. Notwithstanding which, it presents but a void and desert view; since, by its extent, it is capable of supporting several millions more than it at present contains. For the manners and customs of the other Tartars, belonging to the Russian empire, we refer to our account of that country.

"It is the custom in Tibet, to preserve entire the mortal remains of their sovereign Lamas only; every other corpse is either consumed by fire, or given to be the promiscuous food of beasts and birds of prey. As soon as life has left the body of a Lama, it is placed upright, sitting in an attitude of devotion, his legs being folded before him, with the instep resting on each thigh, and the soles of the feet turned upwards." [*Turner's Embassy.*]

Religion.] The religion of the Tartars somewhat resembles their civil government, and is commonly accommodated to that of their neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the Catholick religions. Some of them are the grossest idolaters, and worship little rude images dressed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they make very free, when matters do not go according to their own mind.

The Circassian religion is Paganism, for notwithstanding they use circumcision among them, they have neither priest, alcoran, or mosque, like other Mahometans. Every body here offers his own sacrifice at pleasure; for which, however, they have certain days, established rather by custom than any positive command. Their most solemn sacrifice is offered at the death of their nearest friends, upon which occasion both men and women meet in the field to be present at the offering, which is a he-goat; and having killed, they flay it, and stretch the skin with the head and horns on, upon a cross at the top of a long pole, placed commonly in a quickset hedge, (to keep the cattle from it) and near the place the sacrifice is offered by boiling and roasting the flesh, which they afterwards eat. When the feast is over, the men rise, and, having paid their adoration to the skin, and muttered over some certain prayers, the women withdraw, and the men conclude the ceremony by drinking a great quantity of aqua-vitæ, and this generally ends in a quarrel before they part.

But the religion and government of the kingdom of Thibet, and Lassa, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, are the most remarkable, and the most worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the Grand Lama, or Delai Lama, who is not only submitted to, and adored by them, but is also the great object of adora-

tion for the various tribes of Heathen Tartars, who roam through the vast tract of continent which stretches from the banks of the Wolga, to Korea on the sea of Japan. He is not only the sovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth; but, as superstition is ever the strongest, where it is most removed from its object, the more remote Tartars absolutely regard him as the Deity himself. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worship and make rich offerings at his shrine: Even the emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgments to him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to him, and actually entertains, at a great expense, in the palace of Pekin, an inferior Lama, deputed as his nuncio from Thibet. The opinion of those who are reputed the most orthodox among the Thibetians is, that when the Grand Lama seems to die, either of old age or infirmity, his soul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger or better, and it is discovered again in the body of some child, by certain tokens known only to the lamas or priests, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the Grand Lama was an infant, which had been discovered some time before by the Tayshoo Lama, who in authority and sanctity of character is next to the Grand Lama, and during his minority acts as chief. The Lamas, who form the most numerous, as well as the most powerful body in the state, have the priesthood entirely in their hands; and, besides, fill up many monastick orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The residence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli, a vast palace on a mountain near the banks of the Burrumpooter, about seven miles from Lassa. The English East-India Company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774.* The religion of Thibet, though in many respects it differs from that of the Indian Bramins, yet in others has a great affinity to it. The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and highly respect the waters of the Ganges, the source of which they believe to be in heaven. The Suniasses, or Indian pilgrims, often visit Thibet as a holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. Besides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is possessed of unlimited power throughout his dominions, which are very extensive, and stretch to Bengal.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamanism. The professors of this religious sect believe in one Supreme God, the Creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his sight. But they also maintain, that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the destiny of men, among a great number of subaltern divinities, under his command and control, but who nevertheless

* The fort of Dellmacotta, which commanded the principal pass through the ridge of the Bootan mountains, was taken by storm, by Capt. Jones, in 1773, and the fame of this exploit made the Thibetians sue for peace.

generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot dispense with using all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewise suppose, that, for the most part, these inferior deities abominate and punish premeditated villany, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly persuaded of a future existence; but they have many superstitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are considered as being vastly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their sensual pleasure, to people the world, and to look after household affairs: And, in consequence of these principles, they are treated with much severity and contempt.

The Moravians have missionaries among the Calma Tartars; and though they have met with no particular success among them, yet they have been the means of supplying the German colonies on the Wolga with gospel ministers. [*Miss. Mag.*]

Curiosities.] These are comprehended in the remains of the buildings, left by the above mentioned great conquerors and their successors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, heretofore either surrounding small towns, now quite demolished, or were designed for the defence of camps, forts, or castles, the vestiges of which are often to be discovered upon the spot, as well as other traces of decayed importance. Many of them are in tolerable preservation and make some figure even at present.

The desert of Kirguis abounds in the relicks of opulent cities. Some gold and silver coins have been found, with several manuscripts neatly written, which have been carried to Petersburgh. In 1720, says M. Voltaire, in his history of Peter the Great, there were found in Kalmuc Tartary a subterraneous house of stones, some urns, lamps and ear-rings, an equestrian statue, an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women seated on thrones, and a roll of manuscripts, which was sent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Thibet. About 80 miles from Lassa, is the lake Palte, or Jangso; of that extent, the natives say it requires 18 days to walk round it. In the middle of it are islands, one of which is the seat of the *Lamassa Turcepama*, or the *Great Regenerate*, in whom the Thibetians think a divine spirit dwells, as in the Great Lama.

Cities and Towns.] Of these, we know little but the names, and that they are in general no better than fixed hordes. They may be said to be places of abode rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence against an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding divisions of this country, merit notice. Tobolsk and Astrachan are considerable cities, the first containing 15,000, and the latter 70,500 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns have also lately been erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Russian government.

Terki, the capital of Circassian Tartary, is seated in a spacious plain on an island formed by the rivers Terki and Bustrow, and is garrisoned by 2,000 regulars, and 1,000 cossacks. It is well forti-

fied with ramparts and bastions in the modern style, well stored with cannon, and has always a considerable garrison in it, under the command of a governour. The Circassian prince who resides here, is allowed 500 Russians for his guard, but none of his own subjects are permitted to dwell within any part of the fortifications. Ever since the reductions of those parts to the obedience of Russia, they have put in all places of strength, not only Russian garrisons and governours, but magistrates and priests for the exercise of the Christian religion; yet the Circassian Tartars are governed by their own princes, lords and judges; but these administer justice in the name of the emperor, and in matters of importance, not without the presence of the Russian governours, being all obliged to take the oath of allegiance to his imperial majesty.

Tarku is the capital of Dagestan, and contains 3,000 houses, two stories high, platformed at the top for walking. The Tartars of this province are numerous, and Mahometans, governed by a shefkel, who is elective. The city of Derbent is situated on the Caspian shore, and called the frontier of Persia. It is said to have been first built by Alexander the Great, and that he here received the visit from the Amazonian queen Thalestris. It is now inclosed with a broad strong wall, built with large square stones, hard as marble, from the quarries in Caucasus. Lassa is a small city, but the houses are of stone, and are spacious and lofty.

Commerce and Manufactures.] This head makes no figure in the history of Tartary, their chief traffick consisting in cattle, skins, beavers, rhubarb, musk and fish. The Astrachans, notwithstanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a considerable traffick into Persia, to which they export leather, woollen and linen cloth, and some European manufactures.

History.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furnished those amazing numbers, who, under various names, destroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and those fine provinces, where learning and the arts resided, are now scenes of horror and barbarity. This must have been owing to the dreadful massacres made among the nations by the two above mentioned conquerors and their descendants; for nothing is more common, according to their histories, than their putting to the sword three or four hundred thousand people in a few days.

The country of Usbec Tartary was once the seat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite residence of Zingis, or Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of India and the eastern world. But some authors have absurdly questioned the veracity of the historians of these great conquerors, though it be better established than that of the Greek or Roman writers. The former, about the year 1200, made himself master of those regions, which form at this day the Asiatick part of the Russian empire; and his son Batau Sagin made himself master of Southern Russia, and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or blended with the Russians. Long and heavily did the Tartar yoke gall the neck of

Russia, till alleviated by the divisions among themselves. But not till Ivan III. who ascended the Russian throne in 1462, were they delivered from these warlike invaders. He repeatedly defeated them, subdued the kingdom of Kasan and other provinces, and made his name respected in all that quarter.

Tamerlane's memory has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan. He defeated the Turkish emperor Bajazet, and great were his conquests, and his name, far beyond the limits of his proper dominions. His descent is claimed not only by all the Khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Indostan himself. The capital of this country is Bokharia, which was known to the ancients by the name of Bucharia; situated in the latitude of 39° 15′, and 13 miles distant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the great, and who died in the year 1405.

The present inhabitants of this immense common, compose innumerable tribes, who range at pleasure with their flocks and their herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by separate Khans or leaders, that, upon particular emergencies, elect a great Khan, who claims a paramount power over strangers as well as natives, and who can bring into the field from 20 to 100,000 horsemen. Their chief residence is a kind of military station, which is moved and shifted according to the chance of war and other occasions.

Besides what may be learned from their history and traditions, the standard or colours of the respective tribes form a distinctive mark, whereby each Tartar knows the tribe to which he belongs. These marks of distinction consist of a piece of Chinese linen, or other coloured stuff, suspended on a lance, twelve feet in length, among the Pagan Tartars. The Mahometan Tartars write upon their standards the name of *God*, in the Arabick language. The Kalmucks and the Mogul Tartars distinguish theirs by the name of some animal; and, as all the branches or divisions of a tribe preserve always the figure drawn upon the standard of that tribe, adding only the particular denomination of each branch, those standards answer the purpose of a genealogical table or tree, by which each individual knows his origin and descent.

They are bounded on every side by the Russian, the Chinese, the Mogul, the Persian and the Turkish empires; each of whom are pushing on their conquests, in this extensive, and in some places fertile country. The Khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgment of their dependency upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendship of these barbarians is of the utmost consequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency; and when united they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chinese. The method of carrying on war, by wasting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practised by all of them from the Danube eastward. This circumstance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who must thereby be deprived of all subsistence, while the Tartars, having always many spare horses to kill and eat, are at no loss for provision.

For further information respecting the History of this country, see Universal History.

EMPIRE OF CHINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 1450, Breadth 1260	between	20° and 42° north lat. / 98° and 123° east lon.	1,105,000
To which should be added Chinese Tartary.			644,000*

Boundaries.] IT is bounded by the Chinese Tartary, and an amazing stone wall, 500 leagues in length, on the North; by the Pacifick Ocean, which divides it from North-America, on the East; by the Chinesian Sea, South; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Russia, on the West.

Divisions.] The great divisions of this empire, according to the authors of the Universal History, and the Abbe Grosier, in his general description of China, is into fifteen provinces, (exclusive of that of Lyau-tong, which is situated without the great wall, though under the same dominion) each of which might, for their largeness, fertility, populousness and opulence, pass for so many distinct kingdoms. We give the following account of the division of this empire from the best authorities:

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Pe-tcheli	Pekin	Chan-si	Tai-yuen-fou
Kiang-nan	Kiang-ning-fou	Chen-si	Si-ngan-fou
Kian-si	Nan-tchang-fou	Se-tchuen	Tching-tou-fou
Fo-kien	Fou-tcheou-fou	Qaung-tong	Canton
Tehe-kiang	Hang-tcheou-fou	Quang-si	Quei-ling-fou
Hou-quang	Vou-tchang-fou	Yun-nan	Yionan-fou
Ho-nan	Cai-song-fou	Koei-tcheou	Koei-yang
Chang-tong	Tsi-nan-fou		

STATES TRIBUTARY TO CHINA.

Corea,	Cochin China,	The country of Ha-mil,
Tong-king,	Thibet,	The isles of Licou-kicou.

CHINESE TARTARY.

This is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the east by the gulf of Kamtschatka and the Eastern Sea; on the south by China; and on the west by the country of Kalmouks, who are established between the Caspian Sea and Casghar.

* Macartney makes China proper to be 1330 miles long, from north to south, the breadth 1050 miles; the contents 1,297,999 square miles, or 830,719,360 acres.

EASTERN CHINESE TARTARY

Extends north and south from the 41st to the 55th degree of north latitude, and east and west from about the 137th degree of longitude to the Eastern Sea. It is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the south by the gulf of Lea-tong and Corea; on the east by the Eastern sea; and on the west by the country of the Moguls. The country is divided into three grand departments.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Chen-yang	Mougdon
Kirin	Kirin
Tritcicar	Tritcicar

But it is necessary to acquaint the reader, that the information contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, is drawn from the papers of Jesuits, and others, sent thither by the pope, whose missions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of those fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of being informed about a century ago; but even their accounts of this empire are justly to be suspected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they maintained their footing only by magnifying their own labours and successes, as well as the importance of the Chinese empire.

Name.] It is probably owing to a Chinese word signifying *Middle*, from a notion the natives had that their country was in the middle of the world.

Mountains.] China, excepting to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

Rivers and Water.] The chief are the Yamour and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Russian and Chinese Tartary; the Crocceus, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River, and the Tay. Common water in China is very indifferent, and is in some places boiled to make it fit for use.

Bays.] The chief are those of Nankin and Canton.

Canals.] These are sufficient to entitle the ancient Chinese to the character of being the wisest and most industrious people in the world.

The commodiousness and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn-stone on the sides, and they are so deep that they carry large vessels, and sometimes they extend above 1,000 miles in length. Those vessels are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; and it has been thought by some, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furnished with stone quays, and sometimes with bridges of an amazing construction. The navigation is slow, and the vessels sometimes drawn by men. About 10,000 boats from 200 tons and under, are kept at the publick expense. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perseverance, for the safety of the passengers, in case a canal is crossed by a rapid river, or exposed to torrents from the mountains. These canals, and the variety that is seen upon the

borders, render China the most delightful to the eye of any country in the world, as well as fertile, in places that are not so by nature.

Forests.] Such is the industry of the Chinese, that they are not encumbered with forests or wood, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They suffer, however, none to grow but for ornament and use, or on the sides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

Air, Soil and Produce.] The air of this empire is according to the situation of the places. Towards the north it is sharp, in the middle mild, and in the south hot. The soil is, either by nature or art, fruitful in every thing that can minister to the necessities, conveniences or luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious almost beyond description. The rare trees and aromatick productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and some others peculiar to itself; but even a catalogue of them would form a little volume. Some, however, must be mentioned.

The *tallow-tree* has a short trunk, a smooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, shaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil serves the natives as candles; but they smell strong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are some which yield a kind of flour; some partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of some is poisonous, but affords the finest varnish in the world. After all that can be said of those, and many other beautiful and useful trees, the Chinese, notwithstanding their industry, are so wedded to their ancient customs, that they are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The same may be said of their richest fruits, which, in general, are far from being so delicious as those of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chinese never practising grafting, or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

We must not omit here to mention the raw silk, which so much abounds in China, and above all, the *tea-plant* or shrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent its luxuriancy. Notwithstanding our long intercourse with China, writers are still divided about the different species and culture of this plant. It is generally thought that the green and bohea teas grow on the same shrub, but that the latter admits of some kind of preparation, which takes away its raking qualities, and gives it a deeper colour. The other kinds, which go by the names of imperial, congo, singlo, and the like, are occasioned probably by the nature of the soils, and from the provinces in which they grow. The culture of this plant seems to be very simple; and it is certain that some kinds are of a much higher and delicious flavour than others. It is thought that the finest, which is called the flower of the tea, is imported over land to Russia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human body. The greatest is between the bohea and the green.

It is supposed, that the Portuguese had the use of tea long before the English, but it was introduced among the latter before the Restoration, as mention of it is made in the first act of parliament, that settled the excise on the king for life in 1660. Catharine of Lisbon, wife of Charles II. rendered the use of it common at court. The *ginseng*, so famous among the Chinese as the universal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in America. When brought to Europe, it is little distinguished for its healing qualities; and this instance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The ginseng, however, is a native of the Chinese Tartary.

Agriculture.] The Chinese agriculture is carried to a high state of improvement. On the sides of their steepest hills, terraces are formed, supported by walls of stone; the whole mountain is cultivated to the summit. A reservoir is sunk near the summit of the mountain, where rain water is collected and conveyed round the terraces, down the side of the mountain.

With great toil they collect every species of manure. Prodigious numbers of old men, women and children are constantly employed in the streets, on the banks of the rivers and canals, with baskets tied before them to collect every kind of manure. The Chinese farmers apply liquid manure to the roots of their plants and fruit trees. They also steep their seed in liquid manure, until they begin to germinate before it is sown. [*Pinkerton.*]

Metals and Minerals.] China (if we are to believe naturalists) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to China, but we know of no extraordinary quality it possesses. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government is, that of not introducing a superabundancy of gold and silver, for fear of hurting industry. The gold mines, therefore, are but slightly worked, and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains the people pick up in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan.

Population and Inhabitants.] Much has been said of the *population* of China. It is undoubtedly great. According to Le Compte the 15 provinces contain 2,357 fortified towns, 10,128,789 families, 58,916,783 men. Mr. Amiot estimates the population at *two hundred millions* of inhabitants, and Sir George Staunton computes them at 333,000,000. Notwithstanding the industry of the people, their amazing population frequently occasions a dearth. Parents, who cannot support their female children, are allowed to cast them into the river, but they fasten a gourd to the child, that it may float on the water; and there are often compassionate people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children to save them from death. The Chinese, in their persons are middle sized, their faces broad, their eyes black and small, their noses rather short. The Chinese have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion towards the north is fair, towards the south, swarthy, and the

fatter a man is, they think him the handsomer. Men of quality and learning, who are not much exposed to the sun have delicate complexions, and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to shew that they are not employed in manual labour.

Among the higher classes a great degree of indolence is indulged; they are fed by their servants. The poor people feed on carrion and the vilest reptiles. So great is their poverty that they often expose their infants to perish. Yet they are a mild, tranquil people, seldom agitated by any passion. This may be owing to the strictness of the patriarchal government among them, and their abstinence from all heating food and liquor. [*Pinkerton.*]

The women have little eyes, plump rosy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate though florid complexion. The smallness of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no swathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accomplishment, so that when they grow up, they may be said to totter rather than to walk. This fanciful piece of beauty was probably invented by the ancient Chinese, to palliate their jealousy.

Dress.] This varies according to the degrees among them. The men wear caps on their heads of the fashion of a bell; those of quality are ornamented with jewels. The rest of their dress is easy and loose, consisting of a vest and a sash, a coat or gown thrown over them, silk boots quilted, with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies towards the south wear nothing on their heads. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and sometimes it is dishevelled. Their dress differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large open sleeves. The dress both of men and women varies, however, according to the temperature of the climate.

Marriages.] The parties never see each other in China, till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. Next to being barren, the greatest scandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of a poor family happens to have three or four girls successively, it not unfrequently happens that she will expose them on the high roads, or cast them into a river.

Funerals.] People of note cause their coffins to be made, and their tombs to be built in their life time. No persons are buried within the walls of a city, nor is a dead corpse suffered to be brought into a town, if a person died in the country. Every Chinese keeps in his house a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grand-father, before which they frequently burn incense, and prostrate themselves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceased is added.

Language.] The Chinese language contains only three hundred and thirty words all of one syllable: But then each word is pronounced with such various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be easily imagined, and enables them to express themselves very well on the common occasions of life. The missionaries, who adapt the European characters, as well as they can, to the expression of Chinese words, have devised eleven

different, and some of them very compounded, marks and aspirations, to signify the various modulations, elevations, and depressions of the voice, which distinguish the several meanings of the same monosyllable. The Chinese oral language being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature, and therefore their literature is all comprised in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous; according to some of their writers, they amount to twenty-five thousand; to thirty or forty thousand, according to others; but the later writers say they amount to eighty thousand, though he is reckoned a very learned man, who is master of fifteen or twenty thousand. This language being wholly addressed to the eye, and having no affinity with their tongue, as spoken, the latter has still continued in its original rude, uncultivated state, while the former has received all possible improvements.

The Chinese characters, Mr. Astle observes, which are by length of time become symbolick, were originally imitative; they still partake so much of their original hieroglyhick nature, that they do not combine into words like letters or marks for sounds; but we find one mark for a man, another for a horse, a third for a dog, and in short a separate and distinct mark for each thing which hath a corporeal form. The Chinese also use a great number of marks entirely of a symbolick nature, to impress on the eye the conception of the mind, which have no corporeal forms, though they do not combine these last marks into words, like marks for sounds or letters; but a separate mark is made to represent or stand for each idea, and they use them in the same manner as they do their abridged picture-characters, which were originally imitative or hieroglyphick.

The Chinese books begin from the right hand; their letters are placed in perpendicular columns, of which there are generally ten in a page. They are read downwards, beginning from the right hand side of the paper. Sometimes a title is placed horizontally, and this is likewise read from the right hand.

Genius and Learning.] The genius of the Chinese, it is said, is peculiar to themselves. They have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting; and yet, in their gardening and planning their grounds, they hit upon the true sublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetick with prodigious quickness, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no proper apparatus for astronomical observations; and the metaphysical learning which existed among them was only known to their philosophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jesuits were of very short duration among them, and lasted very little longer than the reign of Canghi, who was cotemporary with Charles II. of England, nor is it very probable they ever will be revived. It has been generally said, that they understood printing before the Europeans; but that can be only applied to block printing, for the fusile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chinese, however, had almanacks, which were stamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was discovered in Europe.

The difficulty of mastering and retaining such a number of arbitrary marks and characters as there are in what may be called the Chinese written language, greatly retards the progress of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with such honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and pursue it. The literati are reverenced as men of another species, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever so mean and low, they become mandarins of the highest rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly sink into poverty and obscurity, if they neglect those studies which raised their fathers. It has been observed, that there is no nation in the world where the first honours of the state lie so open to the lowest of the people, and where there is less of hereditary greatness. The Chinese range all their works of literature into four classes. The first is the class of *King*, or the sacred books, which contains the principles of the Chinese religion, morality and government, and several curious and obscure records, relative to these important subjects. History forms a class apart; yet, in this first class, there are placed some historical monuments or accounts of their relation or religion and government, and among others the *Tekun-tficou*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illustrious sage. The second class is that of the *Su* or *Che*; that is, of history and the historians. The third class, called *Tsu* or *Tse*, comprehends philosophy and the philosophers, and contains all the works of the Chinese literati, the productions also of foreign sects and religions, which the Chinese consider only in the light of philosophical opinions, and all books relative to mathematicks, astronomy, physick, military science, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth class is called *Teie*, or *Miscellanies*, and contains all the poetical books of the Chinese, their pieces of eloquence, their songs, romances, tragedies and comedies. The Chinese literati, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themselves less to the study of nature, and to the researches of natural philosophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical science of life, and internal polity and manners. It is said, that it was not before the dynasty of the Song, in the 10th and 11th centuries after Christ, that the Chinese philosophers formed hypotheses concerning the natural system of the universe, and entered into discussions of a scholastick kind, in consequence, perhaps, of the intercourse they had long kept up with the Arabians, who studied with ardour the works of Aristotle. And since the Chinese have begun to pay some attention to natural philosophy, their progress in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder is justly claimed by the Chinese, who made use of it against Zingis Khan and Tamerlane. They seem to have known nothing of small fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their industry in their manufactures of stuffs, porcelain, japanning, and the like sedentary trades is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raising gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

Antiquities and Curiosities.] Few natural curiosities present themselves in China, that have not been comprehended under foreign articles. Some volcanoes, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Linesung is said sometimes to make so furious a discharge of fire and ashes, as to occasion a tempest in the air; and some of their lakes are said to petrify fishes when put into them. The artificial curiosities of China are stupendous. The great wall, separating China from Tartary, to prevent the iucursions of the Tartars, is supposed to extend from 1,200 to 1,500 miles. It is carried over mountains and vallies, and reaches from the province of Xensi to the Kang Sea, between the provinces of Pekin and Lænotum. It is in most places built of brick and mortar, which is so well tempered, that though it has stood for 1,800 years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Petcheli, to the east of Pekin, and almost in the same latitude: It is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraced and cased with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. P. Regis, and the other gentleman, who took a map of these provinces, often stretched a line on the top, to measure the basis of triangles, and to take distant points with an instrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or six horsemen to travel abreast with ease. Mention has already been made of the prodigious canals and roads that are cut through this empire.

The artificial mountains present on their tops, temples, monasteries, and other edifices. Some part, however, of what we are told concerning the cavities in these mountains, seems to be fabulous. The Chinese bridges cannot be sufficiently admired. They are built sometimes upon barges strongly chained together, yet so as to be parted, and to let the vessels pass that sail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and consist only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high, though a single arch, and joins two mountains; and some in the interior parts of the empire are said to be still more stupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next species of artificial curiosities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman style of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful, and erected to the memories of their great men, with vast labour and expense. They are said in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their sepulchral monuments make likewise a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe under the name of pagodas, are vast embellishments to the face of their country. They seem to be constructed by a regular order, and all of them are finished with exquisite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nankin, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the most admired. It is called the Porcelain Tower, because it is lined with Chinese tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the disagreeable taste in which they are built, for their capaciousness, their whimsical ornaments, and the ugliness of the idols they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which gave name to one of their principal festivals. A bell of Pekin

weighs 120,000 pounds, but its sound is said to be disagreeable. The last curiosity I shall mention, is their fire-works, which in China exceed those of all other nations. In short every province of China is a scene of curiosities. Their buildings, except their pagodas, being confined to no order, and susceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleasing elegance, not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and present a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

Chief Cities.] Little can be said of these more than that some of them are immensely large. The empire is said to contain 4,400 walled cities; Le Compte says but 2,357; the chief of which are Pekin, Nankin and Canton. Pekin, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary residence of the emperors, is situated in a very fertile plain, 20 leagues distant from the great wall. It is an oblong square, and is divided into two cities: That which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, because the houses were given to the Tartars when the present family came to the throne; and they, refusing to suffer the Chinese to inhabit it forced them to live without the walls, where they in a short time built a new city; which, by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, six leagues in compass. The walls and gates of Pekin are of the surprising height of fifty cubits, so that they hide the whole city; and are so broad, that centinels are placed upon them on horseback; for there are slopes within the city of considerable length, by which horsemen may ascend the walls, and in several places there are houses built for the guard. The gates, which are nine in number, are neither embellished with statues, nor other carving; all their beauty consisting in their prodigious height, which at a distance gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the rest with large bricks cemented with excellent mortar. Most of the streets are built in a direct line; the largest are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The shops, where they sell silks and china ware, generally take up the whole street, and afford a very agreeable prospect. Each shopkeeper places before his shop on a small kind of pedestal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varnished and often gilt, on which are written in large characters the names of the several commodities he sells. These being placed on each side of the street at nearly an equal distance from each other, have a pretty appearance; but the houses are poorly built in front, and very low, most of them having only a ground floor, and none exceeding one story above it. Of all the buildings in this great city, the most remarkable is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not consist so much in the nobleness and elegance of the architecture, as in the multitude of its buildings, courts and gardens, all regularly disposed; for within the walls are not only the emperor's house, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houses of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill contrived. F. Attiret, a French Jesuit, who was indulged with a sight of the palace and gardens, says, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference, and that the front of the buildings shines with gilding, paint and varnish,

while the inside is set off and furnished with every thing that is most beautiful and precious in China, the Indies and Europe. The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raised, at proper distances, artificial mountains, from 20 to 60 feet high, which form a number of small vallies, plentifully watered by canals, which uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful and magnificent barks sail on these pieces of water, and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are said to have any resemblance to each other, which diversity produces a very pleasing effect. Every valley has its house of pleasure, very large: Many of these houses are built with cedar, brought, at a vast expense, the distance of 500 leagues. Of these palaces, or houses of pleasure, there are more than 200 in this vast enclosure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky island, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent structure. In this palace, the emperor keeps his women. It can be approached only by boats. In this great pond or lake are two famous vessels of the emperor's, of a most extraordinary size and construction; each having five or six stories of apartments, one above the other, all of which are carved and guilt in the most curious and superb manner. The famous Putawlaw, or temple of publick worship, in the city of Pekin, hangs a bell which the Chinese assured Capt. Turner, (who saw it) weighs upwards of 20,000 pounds, and requires a hundred men to ring it. This, however, is never attempted, but to call the people to arms, in case of invasions, insurrections, or on publick thanksgivings for any signal blessing or victory. In one of the gardens of the emperor stands a temple, in which is a magnificent throne, upon which, it is an ancient and invariable custom of the emperors of China, to seat themselves, at certain times, to hear and determine all matters of complaint, that might be brought before them. Such extraordinary virtue is conceived to be attached to this throne, that, according to the justice or injustice of the emperor's decrees, his existence or immediate death depend. This temple and seat of justice is said, by the Chinese, to have been erected by divine command, and had existed for many thousand years. [*Turner's Embassy.*]

The mountains and hills, in this extensive city, are covered with trees, particularly such as produce beautiful and romantick flowers; and the canals are edged with rustick pieces of rock, disposed with such art, as exactly to resemble the wilderness of nature. The city of Pekin is said to contain two millions of inhabitants.

Nan-kin, or Kiang-ning-fou, is the capital of the province of Kiang-nan. It is the largest city in China, being 17 miles in circumference, and 3 distant from the river Yang-tise-kiang, from which canals are cut, so large, that vessels may enter the town. This place is greatly fallen from its ancient splendour; for it had a magnificent palace, which is quite destroyed, as well as many ancient monuments; and a third part of the city itself is desolate. The streets are narrow, but handsome and well paved. The publick buildings are mean, except a few temples, the city gates, and a tower of porcelain, 200 feet high. In this, and other cities, places of worship are as splendid and

numerous, as in any city of christendom. It is 500 miles S. S. E. of Pekin, lon. 119 25 E. lat. 32 46 N. [*Le Compte du Halde.*]

Canton is the greatest port in China, and the only port that has been much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is about five miles in circumference, with very pleasant walks around it. From the top of some adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine prospect of the country. It is beautifully interspersed with mountains, little hills, and vallies, all green; and these again pleasantly diversified with small towns, villages, high towers, temples, the seats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and small branches from the river *Ta*; on which are numberless boats and junks, sailing different ways through the most fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by seven iron gates, and within-side of each there is a guard-house. The streets of Canton are very straight, but generally narrow, and paved with flag-stones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well stocked with images. The streets of Canton are so crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet women of any fashion are seldom to be seen, unless by chance when coming out of their chairs. There are great numbers of market-places for fish, flesh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of provisions, which are sold very cheap. There are many private walks about the skirts of the town, where those of the better sort have their houses, which are very little frequented by Europeans, whose business lies chiefly in the trading parts of the city, where there are only shops and ware-houses. Few of the Chinese traders of any substance keep their families in the houses where they do business, but either in the city, in the more remote suburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all such a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the streets, but in shops and places of publick business, nor do any of their windows look towards those of their neighbours. The shops of those that deal in silk are very neat, make a fine show, and are all in one place; for tradesmen, or dealers in one kind of goods, herd together in the same street. It is computed that there are in this city, and its suburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5,000 trading vessels lying before the city.

The European factories, with their national flags, are no small ornament to this city. Great-Britain imports from Canton 13,000,000 pounds of tea for her own consumption and that of her dependencies. The balance of trade in favour of China is 1,000,000l. sterling. [*Pinkerton.*]

Trade and Manufactures.] China is so happily situated, and produces such a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be said to be the native land of industry, which is exercised with vast art and neatness. They make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable for records, or printing, to the European. Their ink, for the use of drawing, is well known in England, and is said to be made of oil and lampblack. We have already mentioned the antiquity of their printing, which they still do by cutting their characters on blocks of wood. The manufacture of that earthern ware, generally known by the name of China, was

long a secret in Europe, and brought immense sums to that country. The ancients knew and esteemed it highly under the name of porcelain, but it was of a much better fabrick than the modern. Though the Chinese affect to keep that manufacture still a secret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverized earth, and that several European countries far exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity.* The Chinese silks are generally plain and flowered gauzes, and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing silk-worms was first discovered. They manufacture silk likewise of a more durable kind, and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furnishing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to Americans and to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for such is the pride and avarice of the Chinese, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that since the discovery of the porcelain manufacture, and the vast improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chinese commerce has been on the decline.

Constitution and Government.] This was a very instructive, entertaining article, before the conquest of China by the Tartars; for though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chinese, the Tartars have obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the ancient discipline in many respects. Perhaps their acquaintance with the Europeans may have contributed to their degeneracy. The original plan of the Chinese government was patriarchal, almost in the strictest sense of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the most rigorous manner; but at the same time, the emperor was considered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes, and the degrees of submission which were due from the inferior ranks to the superior were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision, and in a manner that to us seems highly ridiculous. The rod is in frequent use as a punishment. The prime minister may be chastened with rods. The soldiers show great tenderness for the people; every sentence of death must be signed by the Emperor. [*Pinkerton.*] The simple claim of obedience required great address and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chinese legislators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been possessed of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had modes of speaking and writing different from those of other subjects, and the people were taught to believe that their princes partook of divinity, so that they were seldom seen, and more seldom approached.

Though this system preserved the publick tranquillity for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect that often con-

* The English in particular have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commissions which have been received of late from several princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture so generally useful, will meet with encouragement from every true patriot in every country where the raw material is found.

vulsed, and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as to the civil duties. The Chinese had passions like other men, and sometimes a weak or wicked administration drove them into arms, and a revolution easily succeeded, which they justified by saying, that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During those commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tartars to their assistance; and it was thus those barbarians, who had great sagacity, became acquainted with the weak side of their constitution, and they availed themselves accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire.

Besides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chinese had sumptuary laws, and regulations for the expenses of all degrees of subjects, which were very useful in preserving the publick tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their institutions likewise the mandarins might remonstrate to the emperor, but in the most submissive manner, upon the errors of his government, and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the the most salutary effects. No country in the world is so well provided with magistrates for the discharge of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but they are often ineffectual through want of publick virtue in the execution. The emperor is styled "*Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governour of the Earth, Great Father of his people.*"

Religion.] This article is nearly connected with the preceding. Though the ancient Chinese worshipped idols, yet their philosophers and legislators had juster sentiments of the Deity, and indulged the people in the worship of sensible objects, only to make them more submissive to government. The Jesuits made little opposition to this, when they attempted to convert the Chinese; and suffered their proselytes to worship Tien, pretending that it was no other than the name of God. According to Du Halde the ancient Chinese worshipped Tien, the spirit who presides over the heavens; also subaltern spirits, who presided over kingdoms, provinces, cities, rivers, and mountains. Their sacrifices, as in Canaan, were offered on the summits of their hills. The Chinese temples are always open. Confucius, and the Chinese legislators, introduced a most excellent system of morals, among the people, and endeavoured to supply the want of just ideas of a future state, by prescribing to them the worship of inferior deities. Their morality approximated to that of Christianity; but as we know little of their religion, only through the Jesuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous instances which they tell us of the conformity of the Chinese with the Christian religion. Those fathers, it must be owned, were men of great abilities, and made a wonderful progress about a century ago in their conversions; but they mistook the true character of the emperor, who was their patron; for he no sooner found that they were in fact aspiring to the civil direction of the government, than he expelled them, levelled their churches with the ground, and prohibited the exercise of their religion; since which time Christianity has made no progress in China.

Publick Roads.] The security of travellers and an easy mode of conveyance for passengers and merchandize of every kind are objects

to which particular attention seems to have been paid by administration in China. The manner in which the publick roads are managed, greatly contributed to the former.

These roads are in general very broad; they are paved in all the southern provinces, and some of the northern. Vallies have been filled up, and passages have been cut through rocks and mountains, in order to make commodious highways, and to preserve them as nearly as possible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees, and sometimes with walls eight or ten feet in height, to prevent travellers from entering into the fields. Openings are left in them at certain intervals, which give a passage into cross roads, that conduct to different villages. On all the great roads covered seats are erected at proper distances, where the traveller may shelter himself from the inclemency of the winter; or the excessive heats of summer.

There is no want of inns on the principal highways, and even on the cross roads. The former are very spacious, but they are badly supplied with provisions. People are even obliged to carry beds with them, or to sleep on a plain mat. Government requires of those who inhabit them, to give lodging only to those who ask and pay for it.

We meet with many turrets, (says Mr. Bell) called post-houses, erected at certain distances one from another, with a flag-staff, on which is hoisted the imperial pennant. These places are guarded by soldiers, who run from one post to another with great speed, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are in sight of one another, and by signals they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By these means the court is informed in the speediest manner of whatever disturbance may happen in the most remote part of the empire.

Revenues.] These are said by some to amount to twenty millions sterling a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at all abound in China. The taxes collected for the use of government in rice, and other commodities, are certainly very great, and may be easily imposed, as an account of every man's family and substance is annually enrolled, and very possibly may amount to that sum. Sir George Staunton estimates the revenue at 200,000,000 ounces of silver, or 50,000,000l. sterling.

Military and Marine Strength.] China is, at this time, a far more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the eastern Tartars in 1644. This is owing to the consummate policy of Chuntchi, the first Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartar dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Pekin the seat of his government, and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition, which was so much in their favour.

The security, however, of the Chinese from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone, being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at present is the

disuse of arms. The Chinese land army is said to consist of five millions of men; but in these are comprehended all who are employed in the collection of the revenue, and the preservation of the canals, the great roads, and the publick peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. As to the marine force, it is composed chiefly of the junks we have already mentioned, and other small ships, that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent sudden descents. Mr. Pinkerton says, the infantry are computed at 1,000,000, the cavalry at 800,000; and that one European ship would destroy the Chinese navy, and 10,000 of their troops overrun the empire.

A treatise on the military art, translated from the Chinese into the French language, was published at Paris in 1772, from which it appears, that the Chinese are well versed in the theory of the art of war; but caution, care and circumspection, are much recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themselves.

History.] The Chinese pretend, as a nation, to an antiquity beyond all measure of credibility; and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the scripture chronology assigns the creation of the world. Poan Kou is said by them to have been the first man, and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of the celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Christ 479, has been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But upon an accurate investigation of this subject, these extravagant pretensions to antiquity appear to be wholly unsupported. A correspondence has been carried on, for a number of years past, with the missionaries of China and with two young Chinese, whom the desire of being useful to their country engaged to leave it for some time, that they might learn, in France, the European languages and sciences. After a residence of several years there, where they applied themselves with singular attention to the study of natural philosophy, chymistry, &c. and also acquired a considerable knowledge of trade, manufactures, and the mechanick arts, they returned to China in 1765, carrying with them instructions and questions, relating to a variety of objects, which the learned and others desired to have elucidated. On their arrival in China, they joined their labours with those of the missionaries, and thus, since the year 1766, a variety of pieces have been annually sent, containing answers to the questions that had been proposed to them.

In 1776, was printed in a 4to vol. at Paris, the first of a series of volumes, (some of which have since been published) which we are allowed to expect from this annual correspondence. This volume contains, among other valuable things an ample memoir concerning the antiquity of the Chinese nation. It is replete with learned researches, and shews a very extensive degree of erudition. The authors give a mortal blow to the pretended antiquity of the Chinese empire and the authenticity of its ancient history. They prove that all historical relations of events prior to the reign of YAO, who lived 2057 years before Christ, are entirely fabulous, composed in modern times, unsupported by authentick records and full of contradictions.

The same volume contains the translation of two books of great antiquity, the one entitled *Tahio*, or the *Grand Science*: The other *Tsong-yong*, or the exact middle way, with a preface and notes. These two pieces of morality contain the most excellent precepts of wisdom and virtue, expressed with the greatest eloquence, elegance and precision. In the preface to them we are told, they were composed by the grandson of Confucius and one of his disciples, from the lessons of that great philosopher. If so they they are indeed uncommonly curious, and are equal to the noblest philosophical remains of Grecian antiquity, of which they bear, in several places, a very strong resemblance. But one of the passages, which is very striking, and which far exceeds, in clearness, the prophecy of Socrates, is that which follows: "How sublime are the ways of the Holy One! His virtue shall fill the universe—shall vivify all things, and shall rise to the *Tien* or Supreme Deity. What a noble course is opening to our view! What new laws and obligations! What august rites and sacred solemnities! But how shall mortals observe them, if he does not first give them the example? His *coming* alone can prepare us for the performance of these sublime duties. Hence that saying, known and repeated in all ages, "the paths of perfection shall never be frequented, until the *Holy One*, by way of eminence, shall have consecrated them by the traces of his footsteps."

This certainly is a remarkable passage, especially if it has been translated with precision and fidelity, from an authentick production, of so early a date as the time of Confucius.

The origin of the Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. But even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity, and it is certain that the materials for Chinese history are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in 668 volumes, and consist of the pieces that have been composed by the tribunal or department of history, established in China for transmitting to posterity the publick events of the empire, and the lives, characters and transactions of its sovereigns. It is said, that all the facts, which concern the monarchy since its foundation, have been deposited in this department, and from age to age have been arranged according to the order of time, under the inspection of government, and with all the precautions against illusion or partiality that could be suggested. These precautions have been carried so far, that the history of the reign of each imperial family has only been published after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound secret during the dynasty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is asserted, that many of the Chinese historians exposed themselves to exile, and even to death, rather than disguise the defects and vices of the sovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoangti, at whose command the great wall was built, in the year 213 before the Christian era, ordered all the historical books and records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government, with the medals, inscriptions and monuments of antiquity, to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppose his authority, and the changes he proposed to introduce into the monarchy, and that there might remain no earlier

record, date, or authority, relative to religion, science or politicks, than those of his own reign, and he be considered as the founder of the empire. Four hundred literati were burnt with their books; yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; several books were concealed, and escaped the general ruin. After this period, strict search was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but though much industry was employed for this purpose, it appears, that the authentick historical sources of the Chinese, for the times anterior to the year 200 before Christ, are very few, and that they are still in smaller number for more remote periods. But notwithstanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chinese history, it is still immensely voluminous, and has been judged by some writers superior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to 668 volumes, a copy is preserved in the library of the French king. A chronological abridgment of this great work, in one hundred volumes, was published in the 42d year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called Kammo, or the abridgment.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon so copious a subject as that of the Chinese history; nor would we have said even so much on this subject, could we have referred the reader to any good history of this empire. It seems that the original form of government was monarchical; and a succession of excellent princes, and a duration of domestick tranquillity, united legislation with philosophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whose history is wrapped up in mysteries, their Li-Loakum, and above all, their Confucius, at once the Solon and Socrates of China. After all, the continued wars for several centuries between the Chinese and Tartars, and the internal revolutions of the empire, produced the most dreadful effects, in proportion as its constitution was pacifick, and they were attended with the most bloody exterminations in some provinces; so that though the Chinese empire is hereditary, the imperial succession was often broken into, and altered. Upwards of twenty dynasties, or different lines and families of succession, are enumerated in their annals.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars which composed the nation of the Touigouths, left the settlements which they had under the Russian government on the banks of the Wolga, and the Iaick, at a small distance from the Caspian sea, and in a vast body of fifty thousand families, they passed through the country of the Hasacks. After a march of eight months, in which they surmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontier of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily, and offered themselves as subjects to Kien-long, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-sixth year of his reign. He received them graciously, furnished them with provisions, clothes and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and pasturage. The year following there was a second emigration of about thirty thousand other Tartar families, who also quitted the settlements which they enjoyed under the Russian government, and submitted to the Chinese sceptre. The emperor caused the history of the emigrations to be engraven upon stone, in four different languages.

"The present Emperor of China, who has reigned about 60 years, by the general voice of the people, is about five feet ten inches in height, and of a slender but elegant form; his complexion is comparatively fair, though his eyes are dark; his nose is rather aquiline, and the whole of his countenance presents a perfect regularity of features, which by no means announce the great age he is said to have attained: His person is attracting, and his deportment accompanied by an affability, which, without lessening the dignity of the prince, evinces the amiable character of the man.

"His dress consisted of a loose robe of yellow silk, a cap of black velvet with a red ball on the top, and adorned with a peacock's feather, which is the peculiar distinction of mandarins of the first class. He wore silk boots embroidered with gold, and a sash of blue silk girded his waist."*

Of the manner in which he administer's justice, and gives protection to the meanest of his subjects, the following anecdote, which is current in the country, is an affecting example:

A merchant of the city of Nankin had, with equal industry and integrity, acquired a considerable fortune, which awakened the rapacious spirit of the viceroy of that province: On the pretence, therefore, of its being too rapidly accumulated, he gave some intimations of his design to make a seizure of it. The merchant, who had a numerous family, hoped to baffle the oppressive avarice that menaced him, by dividing his possessions among his children, and depending upon them for support.

But this spirit of injustice, when strengthened by power, is not easily thwarted in its designs; the viceroy, therefore, sent the children to the army, seized on their property, and left the father to beg his bread. His tears and humble petitions were fruitless; the tyrannical officer (this vile vicegerent of a beneficent sovereign) disdained to bestow the smallest relief on the man he had reduced to ruin; so that, exasperated by the oppression of the minister, the merchant, at length, determined to throw himself at the feet of the sovereign, to obtain redress, or die in his presence.

With this design, he begged his way to Pekin; and, having surmounted all the difficulties of a long and painful journey, he at length arrived at the Imperial residence; and, having prepared a petition that contained a faithful statement of his injuries, he waited with patience in an outer court till the Emperor should pass to attend the council. But the poverty of his appearance had almost frustrated his hopes; and the attendant mandarins were about to chastise his intrusion, when the attention of the Emperor was attracted by the bustle which the poor man's resistance occasioned; at this moment he held forth a paper, which his Imperial Majesty ordered to be brought to his palanquin; and, having perused its contents, commanded the petitioner to follow him.

It so happened, that the viceroy of Nankin was attending his annual duty in the council; the Emperor, therefore, charged him with the

* Anderson's Embassy to China.

crime stated in the poor man's petition, and commanded him to make his defence; but, conscious of his guilt, and amazed at the unexpected discovery, his agitations, his looks, and his silence condemned him. The Emperor then addressed the assembled council on the subject of the viceroy's crime, and concluded his harangue with ordering the head of this tyrannical officer to be instantly brought to him on the point of a sabre. The command was obeyed; and while the poor old man was wondering on his knees at the extraordinary event of the moment, the Emperor addressed him in the following manner: Look, (said he) on the awful and bleeding example before you, and, as I now appoint you his successor, and name you viceroy of the province of Nankin, let his fate instruct you to fulfil the duties of your high and important office with justice and moderation.

In 1792, Lord Macartney was sent by the British government on an embassy to China, with a view to establish a social and commercial intercourse between the two countries. The embassy was unusually splendid; the presents sent to the Emperor were magnificent, and calculated to impress the Chinese with a high opinion of our superior advancement in science and the arts, and also with a view to create a taste for the elegant productions of Great-Britain, in that immense empire. A variety of adverse circumstances contributed in a great measure to render abortive the purposes of the embassy. A considerable period must, probably, elapse before they relinquish the cautious and forbidding policy by which they have always been guided in their intercourse with foreign nations.

We shall conclude our account of this vast empire with a few miscellaneous remarks from Anderson's account of this embassy.

Nothing is more beautiful than the country of China to him who travels their excellent roads, or sails their noble rivers or broad and extensive canals.

Rich fields highly cultivated, extensive meadows covered with sheep and cattle, gardens equally calculated for pleasure or domestick use, crowded with vegetables and the finest fruits, charm the eye with the beauty of their scenery and the gaiety of their decorations.

The population of this country baffles description. It is thronged with villages, towns and cities: And though the soil is rich and every spot tilled, it affords but a scanty supply for its numerous millions. Creatures which die with disease, and even the vermin, which swarm over their own bodies, afford them a repast. The tables on which they eat are a foot in height, round which they sit on the floor.

They are Pagans; every person, from the meanest peasant to the monarch himself, has an altar and *deity* of his own. So chaste are their morals, that a female is never seen on the stage in China. Eunuchs dressed like women act the female characters. Glass is not used in this country; the rich employ silk, the common people thin glazed paper. In winter large quantities of ice are preserved, which is considered a luxury in their drink in summer.

In this vast empire no person can suffer a capital punishment without the approbation of the emperor. Punishments are mild, but the law is punctually executed; of course, crimes are rare, and often the oldest people have never known an execution.

The common drink of the people is tea. The imperial and gunpowder teas are produced by the same shrub, which grows to the size of a gooseberry bush, with leaves similar. The former of these teas is collected from the first; the latter from succeeding blossoms of the plant. Vast quantities of tobacco are raised; every child, as soon as he can hold a pipe, habitually smokes for his amusement, and as a preservative against infectious diseases. Rice, and cotton, of Nankin colour, cover large plantations.

The houses, in general, are but one story high; those of the Mandarins and wealthy people often two; but a temple is sometimes ten stories high, each of which is surrounded with an elegant gallery and projecting canopies supported by pillars. Among the various modes of taking fish in this country, the most remarkable is by birds trained for the purpose. These water fowls are as obedient as the hound or spaniel, and with great dexterity load a boat with fish. When one has seized a fish too heavy for him to manage, others fly to his assistance. It is a common thing in this country to see a woman (with one child tied to her back, another sucking at her breast) handling the oar, guiding the helm, or toiling in the field. [*Embassy to China.*]

INDOSTAN, HINDOOSTAN,

OR INDIA ON THIS SIDE THE GANGES.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.

THIS fine country, one of the most celebrated in the world for its antiquity, population and opulence, is situated between 66° and 92° 30′ of eastern longitude, and between the 8th and 36th degrees of northern latitude, and is, consequently, partly in the torrid, and partly in the northern temperate zone.

It is washed on the south-west by that part of the Indian ocean, called the Arabian Sea, on the south-east by another large inlet of the same ocean, called the Bay of Bengal, and bounded on all other sides by Persia, Independent Tartary, Thibet, and India beyond the Ganges.

Divisions.] In the year 1596, the dominions of the emperor of Indostan consisted of 105 sircars or provinces, subdivided into 2,737 kusbalis or townships. The empire at that period was parcelled into twelve grand divisions, and each was committed to the government of a Soobadar or Viceroy. The names of the Soubahs, or Viceroyalties, were

Allahabad	Ahmedabad	Cabul
Agra	Bahar	Lahoor
Owdh	Bengal	Multan
Ajmeer	Dehly	Malwa

To these were added, by conquest, Berar, Khandeess, and Ahmednagur, which were formed into three Soubahs, increasing the number to fifteen.*

Indostan† is usually divided into Indostan Proper, to the north; and the peninsula called the Deccan, to the south.

These contain a variety of provinces, whose limits have been at all times very fluctuating, from the unsettled state of government.

The Tartar princes, the successors of Tamerlane, as they subdued this country, divided it into large provinces called Soubahs, which were subdivided into sircars and Purgannahs: The boundaries of these Soubahs, having been fixed by the Emperor Akber, in the 16th century, are tolerably well known.

Of these Soubahs Indostan Proper contained thirteen, viz.

Soubahs or Provinces.	Chief Towns, &c.
Cabul‡	Cabul, a very ancient and beautiful city, lat. 34° 30′, lon. 104° 40′.
	Gazna or Ghuzneen, situated in the second climate, a barren place.
Lahoor§ or the Penjab.	Lahoor on the Rauvee, lat. 31° 50′, lon. 109° 22′—a very large, populous city.
	Attock on the Indus, here called the R. of Attock, has one of the strongest fortresses in the empire, built to secure the passage of the river.

* Ayeen Akberry, or the institutes of the Emperor Akber, translated from the original Persian, by Francis Gladwin, and published in 3 vols. 4to. at Calcutta, 1783 and 1784.

† The divisions of Indostan have been very erroneously stated in most geographies heretofore published. The divisions as above given were obtained from a gentleman of acknowledged acquaintance with the subject, and are according to the celebrated map and memoir of Major Rennell, which are esteemed of the first authority.

‡ The western part of this Soubah is inhabited by a barbarous nation called Afghans, transported hither by Tamerlane from the western coast of the Caspian Sea; they have been alternately dependent on Indostan and Persia, and nearly overturned the latter empire a few years since, having taken and pillaged the city of Ispahan. No less than eleven different languages are spoken in this Soubah

The country of Cashmire was a sircar of Cabul. This celebrated country is environed on all sides by mountains, and watered by the river Behat or Hydaspes, here called Ratab: It is supposed to have been originally a large lake, until an earthquake opened a passage through the surrounding mountains for the water to flow off: The fineness of the climate, and industry of the inhabitants, have rendered it so beautiful, that it is called the Terrestrial Paradise of Indostan. Its capital is Cashmire or Serinagar.

§ This Soubah is very populous, highly cultivated, and very healthy. The cultivated lands are chiefly supplied with water from wells. Ice is brought from the northern mountains, and sold here all the year.

Soubahs or Provinces.	Chief Towns, &c.
Moultan	Moultan or Multan is one of the most ancient cities of Indostan, and is in lat. 29° 25′, lon. 107° 35′.
Sindy	Tarta, *Patala*, on the Indus, here called the R. of Mehran, lat. 29° 25′, lon. 107° 35′.
Delhi or Dehly	Dehly or Gehan-abad on the R. Jumna, lat. 28° 15′, lon. 114° 38′.
Agra*	Agra on the R. Jumna. It contains 500 stone buildings, of surprising construction, and exquisite workmanship.
	Canoge on the R. Ganges.
Azmere or Agimere	Azmere on the Puddar was a royal residence.
	Chitore.
Oude, Owdh or Ahored	Oude or Owdh† on the Dewah or Gogra, one of the largest cities of Indostan, was the ancient capital, lat. 27° 22′, lon. 118° 6′.
	Fyzabad on the same R. is the present capital.
	Lucknow.
Bahar	Patna on the Ganges.
	Tirhoot, the ancient residence of Hindoo learning.
Bengal	Ruins of Gour or Lucknouti, *Gange-regia*, of immense extent, situated formerly on the Ganges, though the main channel of that river is now 5 miles from it; it was the capital of Bengal 2,270 years; the seat of government was in 1540 removed to
	Tanda on the Ganges, now in ruins.
	Rajemal, Dacca, Moorshedabad have succeeded to Tanda, and become successively the capitals of Bengal.
	Hoogly on the river Hoogly.
	Chittacong, Satgong: Two emporiums, one mile distant from each other; both in possession of Europeans. The latter famous for pomegranates.
Allahabad	Allahabad *Hellebas*, at the conflux of the Ganges and Jumna.‡
	Bennares on the Ganges.
Maleva	

* The eastern part of Agra between the Ganges and Jumna, is called the Doab, or country between the two rivers. In this Soubah agriculture is in perfection.

† Near this city are two sepulchral monuments, one seven the other six cubits in length. The vulgar pretend that they are the tombs of Seth and Job, and relate wonderful stories of them.

‡ The Hindoos call this spot *the King of worshipped places*. "It is astonishing that when the planet Jupiter enters the constellation Leo, a hill rises out of the middle of the Ganges, and remains for a month; so that people go upon it and perform divine service." Ayeen Akberry, Vol. II, p. 53.

Soubahs or Provinces.	Chief Towns, &c.
Guzzerat or Gujejerat	Ahmedabad, on the R. Sabermutty, lat. 23°, containing 1000 stone mosques. Cambay and Ghogeh are sea-ports. Surat on the R. Tapte, an emporium, formed into 9 divisions, each inhabited by a different tribe, and they speak different languages.

The Deccan.] This name which signifies the south, in the most extensive signification, includes the whole peninsula south of Indostan Proper; but in its more limited sense it only comprehends the provinces of Candeish, Berar, Golconda, Amednagur and Visiapour; thus excluding the provinces of Orissa, the Carnatick, and the Malabar states, which comprehend that long narrow tract between the Gauts and the western coast, a considerable part of which was never subjected by the Mogul emperors.

Provinces.	Chief Towns, &c.
Candeish	Burhanpour.
Berar	Shawpour, ancient capital—Nagpour, present capital.
Golconda*	Hydrabad or Bagnagar—Golconda—Masulipatam.
Amednagur,† Ballagate or Dowlatabad	Amednagur. Arungabad. Dowlatabad, a strong fortress.
Visiapour or Bejapour	Visiapour.
Orissa	Cattac on the Mahanada. Balasore.
Carnatick	Bisnaghar—Chandeghere. Arect—Trichinapoli. Seringapatam—Gingee.
Malabar states comprehend	Malabar Proper: Cochin. Calicut. Canara: Goa. Concan: Mangalore.

Present Division.] Such was the general division of Indostan under the Mogul emperors; but the celebrated Persian usurper, Thamas Kouli Khan, having in the year, 1738 defeated the emperor Mahomed Shaw, plundered Delhi, and pillaged the empire of treasure to the amount of more than 70 millions sterling, restored the unhap-

* That part of Golconda between the Godavery and Krishna was formerly called Tellingana, and its capital was Warringole or Oringal, a fortress of vast extent.

† The western part of this country is called Baglana.

py prince his dominions, but annexed to Persia all the countries westward of the Indus.

This dreadful incursion so weakened the authority of the emperor, that the viceroys of the different provinces either threw off their allegiance, or acknowledged a very precarious dependence; and, engaging in wars with each other, called in as allies the East-India Companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted as traders, to form establishments on the coasts: these, from the great superiority of European discipline, from allies became in a short time principals in an obstinate contest, that at length terminated in the expulsion of the French from Indostan; and thus a company of British merchants have acquired, partly by cessions from the country powers, and partly by injustice and usurpation, territories equal in extent, and superior in wealth and population, to most of the kingdoms of Europe.

The Mahrattas originally possessed several provinces of Indostan, from whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors; they were never wholly subjected, but, retiring to the northern part of the Gauts, made frequent irruptions from these inaccessible mountains; taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have extended their frontiers, and are at present possessed of a tract of country 1000 British miles long, by 700 wide.

Hyder Ally, a soldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war from the Europeans, having possessed himself of that part of the ancient Carnatick, called the kingdom of Mysore, has within a few years acquired by continual conquests, a considerable portion of the southern part of the peninsula. This able and active prince, the most formidable enemy that the English ever experienced in Indostan, dying in 1783, left to his son Tippoo Saib, the peaceful possession of his dominions, superior in extent to the kingdom of England.

These extraordinary revolutions, with others of less importance, render the following account of the present divisions of property in this unhappy empire absolutely necessary, in order to understand its modern history.

PRESENT DIVISION OF INDOSTAN.

Such is the instability of human greatness, that the present Great Mogul, Shaw Allum, the descendant of the Great Tamerlane, is merely a nominal prince, of no importance in the politicks of Indostan. He is permitted to reside at Delhi, which, with a small adjacent territory, is all that remains to him of that vast empire, which his ancestors governed more than 350 years.

The principal divisions of this country, as they stood in 1782, are as follows, viz. The British possessions; States in alliance with Britain; Tippoo Saib's Territories; Mahratta States and their tributaries; and the Territories of the Soubah of the Deccan.

*British Possessions.**] The British possessions contain about 212,496 square British miles, (which is about 75,000 more than is contained in Great-Britain and Ireland) and about 12 or 14,000,000 of inhabitants. The net revenue is 3,400,000l. or as the same authority says in another place 4,210,000l. [*Pinkerton.*] They consist of three distinct governments, viz.

Government of Calcutta or Bengal	Bengal Soubah Bahar Soubah Benares Zemindary	On the Ganges.
	Northern Sircars	On the coast of Orissa.
Government of Madras	The Jaghire Territory of Cuddalore ——— — Devicotta ———— Negapatam	On the coast of Coromandel.
Government of Bombay		On the Gulf of Cambay.

Government of Bengal.] This government was rich, flourishing and populous before the late usurpations in Indostan; it is finely watered by the Ganges and Burrumpooter, with their numerous navigable channels, and the several navigable rivers they receive. It is fertilized by their periodical inundations; and by its natural situation is well secured against foreign enemies. On the east and north it is defended by stupendous mountains, large rivers, and extensive wastes; on the south by a sea coast, guarded by shallows and impenetrable woods, where it is accessible only by the river of Hoogly; and on the west, though more exposed, the natural barrier is strong. The capital and seat of government is Calcutta, on the river of Hoogly, navigable by ships of the line; it is a modern city, and though in an unhealthy situation, is at present one of the most rich, flourishing and commercial cities in Indostan.

Government of Madras.] The great defects of this government, are not only the want of connection between its parts, which are scattered along an extensive coast, and separated from each other by states frequently hostile, but in being totally devoid of good harbours: Hopes, however, have been entertained of remedying this last defect, by removing the bar at the mouth of that branch of the Caveri called Coleroon, which falls into the sea at Devicotta. The capital and seat of government is Madras in the Jaghire, called also fort St.

* The British nation possess in full sovereignty the whole soubah of Bengal, and the greatest part of Bahar. In Orissa or Orixa, only the districts of Midnapour. The whole of the British possessions in this part of Indostan contain about 150,000 square British miles of land; to which, if we add the district of Banares, the whole will be 162,000, that is, 30,000 more than are contained in Great-Britain and Ireland; and near eleven millions of inhabitants. The total net revenue including Banares, is about 287 lacks of Sicca rubees, which may be reckoned equal to 3,050,000l. [Rennel.] With their allies and tributaries, they now occupy the whole navigable course of the Ganges, from its entry on the plains to the sea, which by its winding course is more than 1,350 miles.

A considerable addition both to the territory and revenue of the East-India company was obtained by the cessions in the late treaty of peace with Tippoo Sultan, to the amount of 15,374 square miles, affording a revenue of 1,316,765 Koonteary pagodas. [Rennel.]

George. It is ill situated without a harbour, and badly fortified, yet contains upwards of 200,000 inhabitants. Fort St. David, in the territory of Cuddalore, is rich, flourishing and contains 60,000 inhabitants. Masulipatam in the northern sircars, at one of the mouths of the Krishna, was formerly the most flourishing and commercial city on this coast, and though much declined, is still considerable.

The northern sircars, which are denominated from the towns of Cicacole, Rajamundry, Elore and Condapily, are defended inland by a strong barrier of mountains and extensive forests, beyond which the country is totally unknown for a considerable space.

Government of Bombay.] This government is watered by the Tapee and Nerbudda. Its capital and seat of government is Bombay, in a small island in an unhealthy situation, but well fortified and on a fine harbour. Surat on the Tapte, which forms an indifferent port, is one of the most rich and commercial cities in Indostan. Tillicherry, on the Malabar coast, is dependent on Bombay.

ALLIES OF THE BRITISH.

Dominions of the Nabob of Oude.

Fyzabad and Lucknow.

Dominions of the Nabob of Arcot, comprehending the eastern part only of the ancient Carnatick.

Arcot on the Paliar is the capital, though the Nabob usually resides at Madras.

Gingee the strongest Indian fortress in the Carnatick.

Trichinapoli near the Caveri, well fortified in the Indian manner, was rich and populous, containing nearly 400,000 inhabitants, now almost ruined by the numerous sieges it has sustained.

Seringham Pagoda, in an island of the Caveri, is famous throughout Indostan for its sanctity, and has no less than 40,000 priests, who constantly reside here in voluptuous indolence.

Chandegeri, the ancient capital of the empire of Narzzingua, formerly rich, powerful and populous ; near it is the famous Pagoda of *Tripetii,* the Loretto of Indostan. The offerings of the numerous pilgrims who resort hither bring in an immense revenue.

Tanjore Madura and *Tinivelly* are the capitals of small states of the same name, which with Marawar, are dependent on the Nabob of Arcot.

Territory of Futty Sing Guicker in the Soubah of Guzerat.

Amedabad and *Cambay.*

Territory of the Rajah of Ghod.

Gwalior, a celebrated fortress.

TIPPOO SAIB's TERRITORIES.

Kingdom of Mysore	Seringapatam on the Caveri
Bednore	Bednore or Hyder Nugger
Canara	Mangalore
Part of Malabar proper	Calicut.

Chitteldroog, Sanore, Harponelly, Roydroog, Gooty Condanore, Canoul, Cuddapa, &c. are the capitals of territories of the same name, which have been successively conquered by Hyder Ally.

MAHRATTA STATES IN ALLIANCE WITH THE BRITISH AND THEIR TRIBUTARIES.

This extensive country is divided among a number of chiefs or princes, who have one common head called the Paishwa or Nana, to whom however their obedience is merely nominal, as they often war against each other, and are seldom confederated except for mutual defence.

Southern Poonah Mahrattas or the territories of Paishwa, are naturally strong, being intersected by the various branches of the Gauts.

Satara the nominal capital of the Mahratta States, the Paishwa at present resides at Poonah.
Aurungabad, Amednagur, and Visiapour are in his territories.

The Concan, or tract between the Gauts and the sea, is sometimes called the Pirate coast, as it was subject to the celebrated Pirate Angria and his successors, whose capital was the strong fortress of Gheria, taken by the English and Mahrattas in 1755. By the acquisition of this coast, the Mahrattas have become a maritime power.

By the treaty of peace, Tippoo Sultan ceded to the Mahrattas :

	Koonteary pagodas.
In the Dooab, being the sircar of Bancapoor, with part of Moodgul, &c. affording a revenue of	1,306,666
In Gooty, the district of Sundoor,	10,000
	1,316 666

TERRITORIES OF THE NIZAM, AN ALLY TO THE BRITISH.

The possessions of the Nizam or Soubah of the Deccan, (a younger son of the famous Nizam-al-Muluck) comprise the province of Golconda, that is, the ancient province of Tillingana, or Tilling, situated between the lower parts of the Kistna and Godavery rivers, and the principal part of Dowlatabad ; together with the western part of Berar, subject to a tribute of a chout, or fourth part of its net revenue, to the Berar Mahratta. The Nizam has the Paishwa, or Poonah Mahratta on the west and north-west ; the Berar Mahratta on the north ;

the northern sircars on the east; and the Carnatick, and Tippoo Sultan, on the south. I am not perfectly clear (says Major Rennel) in my idea of his western boundary, which, during his wars with the Mahrattas, was subject to continual fluctuation; but I understand generally, that it extends more than 40 miles beyond the city of Aurungabad, westwards; and comes within 80 miles of the city Poonah. His capital is Hydrabad, or Bagnagur, situated on the Moussi river, near the famous fortress of Golconda.

The districts of Adoni, and Rachore, which were in the hands of Bazalet Jung, (brother to the Nizam) during his life time, are now in the hands of the Nizam. The Sourapour or Solapoor rajah, on the west of the Beemah river, together with some other rajahs, are his tributaries. The Guntoor sircar also belongs to him. Probably (says the Major) these dominions including his tributaries and feudatories are no less than 430 miles in length, from N. W. to S. E. by 300 wide.

To the above, we have now to add those which Tippoo Sultan ceded to him in the treaty of peace, signed March 18, 1792, viz.

	Koonteary pagodas
Kerpah (or Cuddapah) Cummum, Ganjecotta and Canoul, affording a revenue of	9,71,390
In Gooty	51,782
In Adoni (Mooka)	12,162
In the Dooab, being parts of Rachore, and Moodgul	2,81,332
	13,16,666

BERAR MAHRATTAS.

This country is very little known to Europeans.

Negapour is the capital.
Balasore has considerable trade.
Cuttack, on the Mahanada, an important post, which renders this nation a formidable enemy to the British, as it cuts off the communication between the governments of Bengal and Madras.

NORTHERN POONAH MAHRATTAS.

They are governed at present by Sindia, Holkar, and some other less considerable princes.

Ougein, the residence of Sindia.
Indoor the residence of Holkar.
Calpy, the residence of Gungdar Punt.
Sagur the residence of Ballagee.

TIPPOO SULTAN'S TERRITORIES

Have been greatly diminished in consequence of the late treaty of peace, in which he consented to resign half his dominions to the British, the Mahrattas and the Nizam. His remaining dominions are,

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Kingdom of Mysore	Seringapatam on the Caveri.
Bednore	Bednore or Hyder Nugger.
Canara	Mangalore.

Chitteldroog, Harponelly, Roydroog, &c. are the capitals of territories of the same name.

Country of the Abdalli. This government, which includes the soubah of Cabul, and the neighbouring parts of Persia, was formed by Abdalla, one of the generals of Thamas Kouli Khan, when, on the death of that usurper, his empire was dismembered; its capital is Candahar in Persia.

Country of the Seiks. They are said to consist of a number of small states independent of each other, but united by a federal union.

Country of the Jats or Getes, very little known to Europeans.

Country of Zebeda Cawn, an Afghan Rohilla.

Territory of Agra on the Jumna.

Ferrukabad, or country of the Patan Rohillas, on the Ganges, surrounded by the dominions of Oude.

Bundelcund.

Travancore, near Cape Comorin.

Air and Seasons.] The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by the sea breezes; and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands, and let them fall in dry showers, are extremely disagreeable. The English, and consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indostan, are commonly seized with some illness, such as flux or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy. About the end of June, a southwest wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rains, lasts four months, during which time all is serene upon the coast of Coromandel (the western and eastern coast being so denominated.) Towards the end of October, the rainy season, and the change of the monsoon begins on the Coromandel coast, which being destitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ships to remain there, during that time; and to this is owing the periodical returns of the English shipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coast. The air is naturally hot in this peninsula, but is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every 12 hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other 12 hours from the sea, which last proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast. In Thibet the winter nearly corresponds with that of Switzerland. In the whole extent of Indostan, except in Cashmir, there is hardly any appearance of winter; only in November there are thick fogs; excessive heat and rains form the chief varieties of the year. [*Pinkerton.*] The produce of the soil is the same with that of the other parts of the East-Indies. The like may be said of their quadrupeds, fish, fowl, and noxious creatures and insects.

Mountains.] At C. Camorin commences a range of steep and lofty mountains, called the Gauts or Gettes, which runs parallel to the western coast, and assumes various names as it advances northward; These mountains rise abruptly from the low country on the west, like a stupendous wall, that supports a vast extent of fertile and populous plains, which are so much elevated as to render the air, though in the torrid zone, cool and pleasant. Indostan is separated from the countries that environ it to the northward by several ranges of stupendous mountains that have no general appellation, but are distinguished by various names, in different parts: Of these, the most remarkable are the mountains Hindoo-Koh, the ancient Paropamisus and Indian Caucasus, on the confines of Persia and Independent Tartary. The mountains of Thibet, on the confines of that country are very lofty, and connected with others farther north, of such great height, that they are supposed the highest in Asia.

Rivers.] Of the rivers of Indostan, three far exceed the rest in magnitude and utility; the Indus, the Ganges and the Burrumpooter. The Indus, called Sindeh by the natives, issues from the mountains of Hindoo-Koh, and, soon becoming navigable, is called the River of Attock. In the upper part of its course it receives several fine, navigable rivers; but none in the lower, where it crosses a flat, open country, and falls into the Arabian sea, by several channels, the chief of which is called the River of Mehran. These channels form and intersect a large triangular island, which they fertilize by their periodical inundations. The principal rivers it receives are the Behat, or Hydaspes; and the Hyphasis, which formed the eastern boundary of the conquests of Alexander.

The Ganges, one of the finest rivers in the world, issues from Kentaisse, one of the vast mountains of Thibet, and after a course of about 750 miles, through mountainous regions little known, enters Indostan at the Defile of Kupele, supposed, by the natives, to be its source; from hence, this fine river (which is revered by the Hindoos as a deity that is to wash away all their stains, and who say that it flows from the hair of Mahadeo) passes through delightful plains, with a smooth navigable stream, from one to three miles wide, during the remainder of its course, which is about 1350 miles, to the bay of Bengal, into which it falls by two larger, and a multitude of lesser channels, that form and intersect a large triangular island, whose base at the sea is near 200 miles in extent. The entire course of the Ganges is 2100 miles, and is to that of the Thames as 9¼ to 1. The navigation of the eastern branch being dangerous, is little frequented. The western branch, called the little Ganges, or river of Hoogly, is navigable by large ships, and most generally frequented. The Ganges receives 11 rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none inferior to the Thames, in England. The learned among the Hindoos have composed volumes in praise of these waters, all parts of which they consider as holy; but some particular parts are esteemed more so than others. People of high rank, have the water of the Ganges brought to them from vast distances, it being thought necessary to the performance of some religious rites. The water of the Ganges has been celebrated in all ages, not only for its sanctity, but

also on account of its sweetness, lightness and wholesomeness, and because it does not become putrid though kept for years.

The Burrumpooter is called Sanpoo in the upper part of its course. This rival sister of the Ganges issues from the same mountains that give birth to that river; but taking a contrary direction through Thibet, winds to the southwest, through Assam, and entering Indostan, flows to the south, assumes the name of Megna, and joins the western branch of the Ganges, with an immense body of water, equal if not superior to the Ganges itself.

These two noble rivers, when they approach the sea, divide into such a multitude of channels, and receive such a number of navigable streams, that a tract of country nearly equal to Great-Britain in extent, enjoys by their means the finest inland navigation that can be conceived, and which gives constant employment to 30,000 boatmen. These channels are so numerous that very few places in this tract are, even in the dry season, 25 miles from a navigable stream; and in the season of the periodical rains, they overflow their banks to the depth of 30 feet, and form an inundation that fertilizes the soil to the extent of more than one hundred miles.

Desert.] On the east of Indus is an extensive desert, 500 miles long, and from 60 to 150 wide. It is styled the desert of Agimere, an expanse of barren sand. [*Pinkerton.*]

Population, Inhabitants, Religion and Government.] The Mahometans (says Mr. Orme) who are called Moors, of Indostan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about a hundred millions. Mr. Pinkerton makes the population of Indostan 60,000,000.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, as others call them, Hindoos, and the country Hindoostan. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legislator, both in politicks and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he existed many thousand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was some great and good genius, whose beneficence, like that of the pagan legislators, led his people and their posterity to pay him divine honours. The Bramins (for so the Gentoo priests are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and institutions; and that, though the original is lost, they are still possessed of a sacred commentary upon it, called the Shahstah, which is written in the Shanscrita language, now a dead language, and known only to the Bramins, who study it, as our sacred scriptures are written in Greek and Hebrew. But whether that language was originally different from that of the country, or whether it has only now become unintelligible to the people, through that change which is incident to all living languages, is not well known.

The foundation of Brumma's doctrine consisted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who created a regular gradation of beings, some superior and some inferior to man; in the immortality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments, which is to consist of a transmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-existent state. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempsychosis took its rise in India. The necessity of inculcating this sublime, but otherwise complicated

doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the Bramins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourse to sensible representations of the Deity and his attributes; so that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated to rank ridiculous idolatry, in the worship of different animals, and various images, and of the most hideous figures, delineated or carved. Wooden images are placed in all their temples, and on certain festivals are exhibited in the high roads, and in the streets of towns. The human figures, with elephants' heads, which are the objects of their devotion, have many hands, and are enormously corpulent. In 1793, the missionary society of particular Baptists sent two missionaries to the East-Indies to spread the doctrines of salvation. The society in London for propagating the gospel, support a few missionaries on the Malabar coast.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great *tribes*. The first and most noble tribe are the Bramins, who alone can officiate in the priesthood, like the Jewish tribe of Levi. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are strictly prohibited from all menial offices by their laws. The second in order is the Stritti tribe, who, according to their original institution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other professions. The third is the tribe of Beise, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banias or shopkeepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial servants; and they are incapable of raising themselves to any superior rank. If any one of them should be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his posterity are forever shut out from the society of every body in the nation, excepting that of the Harri cast, who are held in utter detestation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meanest and vilest offices. This circumstance renders excommunication so dreadful, that any Hindoo will suffer the torture, and even death itself, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Besides this division into tribes, the Gentoos are also subdivided into *casts*, or smaller classes and tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of these casts, though some have supposed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the casts, in a particular city or province, is generally indisputably decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himself honoured by adopting the customs of a superior cast; but this last would give battle sooner than not vindicate its prerogatives. The inferior receives the victuals prepared by a superior cast with respect, but the superior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior cast. Their marriages are circumscribed by the same barriers as the rest of their intercourses; and hence, besides the national physiognomy, the members of each cast preserve an air of still greater resemblance to one another. There are some casts remarkable for their beauty and others as remarkable for their ugliness. The most striking features in the character of the Hindoos, are their superstition, and veneration for the institutions and tenets of their forefathers.

In all ages, the trade with India, has been the same; gold and silver have uniformly been carried thither, in order to purchase the

same commodities, with which it now supplies all nations; and from the age of Pliny to the present times, it has always been considered and execrated, as a gulf which swallows up the wealth of every other country, that flows incessantly towards it, and from which it never returns.*

The arguments in favour of the great antiquity of civilization in this country are very inconclusive. The distinction into casts Dr. Robertson considered as proof; but he might have known that casts and trades are very different. A division of trades argues civilization; but the division into casts doubtless proceeded from a crafty priesthood, to establish their own superiority. The casts of soldier, priest, merchant, servant, were none of them tradesmen. The laws being so complex are viewed as another argument; but the laws of England have within six centuries become very complex; so that this proves nothing. Another argument is their regular institutions of religion and magnificent temples; but this might have been applied to the Roman Catholick religion in Scandinavia in the thirteenth century, when it had existed there only about two centuries. It has been proved that their systems, pretended to be the most ancient in existence, are less than 740 years of age.

[*Asiatick Researches. Pinkerton.*]

In India, the dominion of religion extends to a thousand particulars, which in other countries are governed either by the civil laws, or by taste, custom, or fashion. Dress, food, the common intercourses of life, marriages, professions, all are under the jurisdiction of religion. There is scarcely any thing that is not regulated by superstition. It prescribes rules of conduct in all circumstances and situations; nor is there any thing hardly so trifling or minute as to be considered as a matter of indifference. The original government of the Hindoos was in reality a hierarchy; for among that religious people, the highest authority was possessed by the priesthood, or the Bramin cast. Nor is it in this instance, only, that we find a resemblance between the natives of India and them. Not only were the governments of both nations hierarchical, but in both there was a vast variety of religious observances and ceremonies extending to many particulars, which in other countries are matters of choice or of indifference; and both entertained the most profound respect and veneration for their ancestors. All the casts acknowledged the Bramins for their priests, and from them derive their belief of the transmigration; which leads many of them to afflict themselves, even at the death of a fly, although occasioned by inadvertence. But the greater number of casts are less scrupulous, and eat, although very sparingly, both of fish and flesh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. The food of the Hindoos is simple, consisting chiefly of rice, ghee, which is a kind of imperfect butter, milk, vegetables, and oriental spices of different kinds, but chiefly what is called in the east, *chilly*, and in the west, green or Cayen pepper. The warrior cast may eat of the flesh of goats, mutton and poultry. Other superior

* Dr. Robertson's Historical Disquisition concerning India, Appendix, p. 261, 262.

casts may eat poultry and fish; but the inferior casts are prohibited from eating flesh or fish of any kind. Their greatest luxury consists in the use of the richest spiceries and perfumes, of which the great people are very lavish, and which grow almost spontaneously in their gardens. They esteem milk the purest of foods, because they think it partakes of some of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and because they esteem the cow itself almost like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happiness consists in the solaces of a domestick life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indispensable duty in every man, who does not entirely separate himself from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion also permits them to have several wives; but they seldom have more than one; and it has been observed, that their wives are distinguished by a decency of demeanour, a solicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the most civilized countries. The amusements of the Hindoos consist in going to their pagodas, in assisting at religious shews, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies prescribed to them by the Bramins. Their religion seems to forbid them to quit their own shores,* nor do they want any thing from abroad. They might, therefore, have lived in much tranquillity and happiness if others had looked on them with the same indifference, with which they regard the rest of the world.

The soldiers are commonly called Rajah poots, or persons descended from rajahs, and reside chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair complexioned than the people of the southern provinces, who are quite black. These rajah poots are a robust, brave, faithful people, and enter into the service of those who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finished, and they run off the field without any stain upon their reputation.

The custom of women burning themselves, upon the death of their husbands, still continues to be practised among some of high cast and condition, though much less frequently than formerly; and it is said that the Bramins now do not encourage it. Though it is not known what was the origin of this cruel custom, yet perhaps the design was to enforce attention to the health of the husband, by making the life of the wife to depend upon his. [*Pinkerton.*]

One particular class of women are allowed to be openly prostituted. These are the famous dancing girls. Their attitudes and movements

* The Gentoos are persuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kistna and Indus, have the sacred virtue of purifying those who bathe in them, from all pollutions and sins. This religious idea seems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to restrain the natives from migrating into distant countries; for it is remarkable, that the sacred rivers are so situated that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of washing away their sins. The Ganges, which rises in the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar and Oriza, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcund, Agra, Delhi, and Lahore. The Kistna divides the Carnatick from Golconda, and runs through Visiapour into the interior parts of the Decean. And the Indus bounding the Guzzerat provinces, separates Indostan from the dominions of Persia.

are very easy and not ungraceful. Their persons are delicately formed, gaudily decorated, and highly perfumed. By the continuation of wanton attitudes, they acquire as they grow warm in the dance, a frantick lasciviousness themselves, and communicate, by a natural contagion, the most voluptuous desires to the beholders.

The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their publick works and conveniences, as the Chinese; and remarkably honest and humane. There is scarcely an instance of a robbery in all Indostan, though the diamond merchants travel without defensive weapons. According to a late writer, the Hindoos, as well as the Persians, Tartars and adjoining nations, who have inhabited Indostan since it was invaded by Tamerlane, though of different nations, religions, laws and customs, possess nevertheless, in equal degrees, hospitality, politeness and address. In refinement and ease they are superior to any people to the westward of them. In politeness and address, in gracefulness of deportment and speech, an Indian is as much superior to a Frenchman of fashion, as a French courtier is to a Dutch burgomaster of Dort. A Frenchman's ease is mixed with forward familiarity, with confidence and self-conceit; but the Hindoos, especially those of the higher casts, are in their demeanour easy and unconstrained, still more than even a French courtier, and their ease and freedom is reserved, modest and respectful.

Their persons are straight and elegant, their limbs finely proportioned, their fingers long and tapering, their countenances open and pleasant, and their features exhibit the most delicate lines of beauty in the females, and in the males a kind of manly softness. Their walk and gait, as well as their whole deportment, is in the highest degree graceful. The dress of the men is a kind of close-bodied gown, like our women's gowns, and wide trowsers resembling petticoats, reaching down to their slippers. Such of the women as appear in publick, have shawls over their heads and shoulders, short close jackets, and tight drawers which come down to their ankles. Hence the dress of the men gives them, in the eye of Europeans, an appearance of effeminacy; whereas that of the women will appear rather masculine. Such is the influence of habit and custom on sentiments; an influence which extends to matters of taste, and to objects of higher importance.

Their houses cover much ground, and have spacious galleries and accommodations of various kinds. The apartments are small, and the furniture not very elegant, if we except the rich Persian carpets. The grandeur of their palaces consists in baths, perfumes, temples, gods, and harams. The harams or zenanas, that is, the residences of the women, are removed from the front of the house, and lighted only from a square space in the centre of the whole building. The apparel of the women is inconceivably rich; they have jewels on their fingers and about their necks, and also in their ears and nostrils, with bracelets on their wrists and arms, and around their ankles.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are stupendous, but disgustful, stone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Bramins. If the Bramins are masters of any uncommon art or science, they frequently turn it to the purposes of profit from

their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton says, that they know how to calculate eclipses; and that judicial astrology is so prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewise encourage those superstitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo industry as belonging to themselves. Though the Gentoos are entirely passive under all their oppressions, and by their state of existence, the practice of their religion, and the scantiness of their food, have nothing of that resentment in their nature that animates the rest of mankind; yet they are susceptible of avarice, and sometimes bury their money, and rather than discover it, put themselves to death by poison, or otherwise. This practice, which it seems is not uncommon, accounts for the vast scarcity of silver that till of late prevailed in Indostan.

The reasons above mentioned account likewise for their being less under the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women is on the decay at eighteen; at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to wonder at their being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigour of mind; and whatever may be the cause, a recent traveller among them observes, it is certain, that death is regarded with less horror in India than in any other country in the world. The origin and the end of all things, say the philosophers of India of the present times, is a *vacuum*. A state of repose is the state of greatest perfection; and this is the state after which a wise man aspires. It is better, say the Hindoos, to sit than to walk, and to sleep than to wake; but death is the best of all. According to the Gentoo laws, criminals sentenced to death are not to be strangled, suffocated, or poisoned, but to be cut off by the sword; because, without an effusion of blood, malefactors are supposed to die with all their sins about them; but the shedding of their blood, it is thought, expiates their crimes.

The Mahometans, who, in Indostan, are called Moors, are of Persian, Turkish, Arabick, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the caliphs of Bagdad, to invade Indostan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which still subsists. Those princes being strict Mahometans, received under their protection all that professed the same religion, and who being a brave, active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are said to have introduced the division of provinces, over which they appointed soubadars; and those provinces, each of which might be styled an empire, were subdivided into nabobships; each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubadar, who, in process of time, became almost independent on the emperor, or as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their pay-

ing him an annual tribute. The vast resort of Persian and Tartar tribes has likewise strengthened the Mahometan government; but it is observable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all those adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horses and their swords, degenerated into all the eastern indolence and sensuality.

Of all those tribes, the Mahrattas at present make the greatest figure. They commonly serve on horseback, and, when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold, active spirit, and pay great respect to the principles of their religion. Mr. Scrafton says, that the Mahometans or Moors are generally of so detestable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and those were among the Tartar and Persian officers of the army. These are void, we are told, of every principle even of their own religion; and, if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hospitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will stab him to the heart. But it is probable, that these representations of their moral depravity are carried beyond the bounds of truth.

The manner of drinking among the Gentoos is remarkable. They religiously avoid touching the vessel that contains the liquor with their lips, and pour it into their mouths, holding the bottle, or other vessel, at least at a foot's distance. Their idea is, that they would be polluted by stagnating water. They will drink from a pump, or of any running stream, but not out of a pool.

Mr. Dalrymple observes, according to the Gentoo constitution, land (houses and gardens excepted) is not private property, but belongs to the community, in the several villages; each of which are supplied with their respective publick officers, as the headman, to execute justice; the conicopoly, to keep the accounts of the village; the cornmeter, smith, barber, doctor, astrologer, &c. The grounds are cultivated by the community, and the produce shared out in certain proportions to all. One is allotted to the Pagodas and Bramins, one to the government, another to the publick officers, one to the repair of tanks, or reservoirs of water, and the rest distributed among the community; but we understand that the Mahometan government, and the intrusion of Europeans, have introduced some innovations in this ancient constitution, particularly, by farming the sircar, or government shares.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long subsisted without almost the semblance of virtue among its great officers, either civil or military. It was shaken, however, after the overthrow of Mahomet Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority that the soubahs and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies and support their power; so that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-masters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the

inhabitants, those soubadars and nabobs, and other Mahometan governours, employ the Gentoos themselves, and some even of the Bramins, as the ministers of their rapaciousness and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Khan, Indostan, from being a well regulated government, is become a scene of mere anarchy; every great man protects himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worse state, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above causes are owing the late successes of the English in Indostan. The reader, from this representation, may perceive, that all the English have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from usurpers and robbers; and their possession of it being guaranteed by the present lawful emperor, is said to be founded upon the laws and constitutions of that country. We are, however, sorry to be obliged to remark, that the conduct of many of the servants of the East-India Company towards the natives, and not properly punished or checked, either by the directors or the British legislature, has in too many instances been highly dishonourable to the English name, and totally inconsistent with that humanity which was formerly their national characteristick.

It may be here proper just to observe, that the complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the features of both sexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Persians and Tartars, on account of the fairness of their complexion, resembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane and his great generals.

Provinces, Cities, and other Buildings, publick and private. The province of Agra is the largest in all Indostan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greatest city, and its castle the largest fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the English have none.

The city of Delhi or Dehly, now in ruins, was the capital of the province, and of Indostan. It is described as being a fine city, and containing the imperial palace, which is adorned with the usual magnificence of the East. Its stables formerly contained 12,000 horses, brought from Arabia, Persia and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the season, as is often the case, these horses are said to be fed in the morning with bread, butter and sugar, and in the evening with rice-milk, properly prepared. The grand mosque is a magnificent building, of marble and red free-stone, with gilded domes and lofty spires.

Tatta, the capital of Sindy, is a large city; and it is said that a plague which happened there in 1699, carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in silk and cotton. It is still famous for the manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repose when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, 40 miles a day; 10 being usually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a

palanquin is dear at first cost, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten shillings a month each, out of which they maintain themselves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp fish.

Though the province of Moultan is not very fruitful, yet it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants by their situation are enabled to deal with the Persians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horses. The capital is Moultan, about 800 miles, by the course of the river, from the sea.

The province of Cassimere, being surrounded with mountains, is difficult of access, but when entered, it appears to be the paradise of the Indies. It is said to contain 100,000 villages, to be stored with cattle and game without any beasts of prey. The capital, Cassimere, stands by a large lake; and both sexes, the women especially, are almost as fair as the Europeans, and are said to be witty and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the Indian history, and is still one of the largest and finest provinces in the Indies, producing the best sugars of any in Indostan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the provinces of Ayud, Verad, Beker and Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Indostan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who seem never to have been conquered, and though they submit to the Moguls, live in an easy independent state. In some of those provinces many of the European fruits plants, and flowers, thrive, as in their native soil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the most interesting to an English reader. Its natural situation (as described by Major Rennel, late surveyor general in Bengal) is singularly happy with respect to security from the attack of foreign enemies. On the north and east it has no warlike neighbours; and has moreover a formidable barrier of mountains, rivers or extensive wastes towards those quarters, should an enemy start up. On the south is a sea coast guarded by shallows and impenetrable woods, and with only one port which which is of difficult access, in an extent of 300 miles. Only on the west, can an enemy be apprehended, but there the natural barrier is strong, and with its population and resources, and the usual proportion of British troops, Bengal might bid defiance to any part of Indostan which was inclined to become its enemy. It is considered as the store house of the East-Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its soil consists of rice, sugar canes, corn, sesamum, small mulberry, and other trees. "Most of the rivers of Bengal," says the author of Ayen Akberry, "have their banks cultivated with rice, of which there are a variety of species. The soil is so fertile in some places, that a single grain of rice will yield a measure of 2 or 3 seer. Some lands will produce three crops in a year. Vegetation is here so extremely quick, that as fast as the water rises, the plants of rice grow above it, so that the ear is above it. Men of experience affirm that a single stalk will grow six cubits in one night." Its calicoes, silks, salt-petre, lakka, opium, wax and civit, go all over the world; and provisions here

are in vast plenty, and incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks and geese. This country is intersected by canals, cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce; and extends near 100 leagues on both sides the Ganges, full of cities, towns, villages and castles.

In Bengal the worship of the Gentoos is practised in its greatest purity; and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples. The women, notwithstanding their religion, are said by some to be lascivious and enticing.

Calcutta is situated on the western arm of the Ganges, 100 miles from the sea, and contains 500,000 inhabitants. The commerce is very extensive; the quarter inhabited by the English is built of brick, the houses are superb having more the appearance of palaces than common dwellings. Lat. 22 33 N. lon. 88 28 E. A university has been established here. [*Pinkerton.*]

The principal English factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called Fort William: It is situated on the river Hoogly, the most westerly branch of the Ganges. The fort itself is said to be irregular, and untenable against disciplined troops; but the servants of the company have provided themselves with an excellent house, and most convenient apartments for their own accomodation. As the town itself has been in fact for some time in possession of the Company, an English civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the Company. But in 1773, an act of parliament was passed to regulate the affairs of the East-India company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act the governour-general and four counsellors were appointed and chosen by the parliament, with whom was vested the whole civil and military government of the presidency of Fort William; and the ordering, management, and government of all the terrritorial acquisitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar and Orissa, so long as the Company should remain possessed of them. The governour-general and council so appointed, are invested with the power of superintending and controlling the government and management of the presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bencoolen. The governour-general and council to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and to correspond with them. The governour-general and counsellors were likewise empowered to establish a court of judicature at Fort William; to consist of a chief justice, and three other judges, to be named from time to time by his majesty; these are to exercise all criminal, admiralty and ecclesiastical jurisdiction; to be a court of record and a court of oyer and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory of Fort William, and its limits, and the factories subordinate thereto. But the establishment of this supreme court does not appear to have promoted either the interests of the East-India Company, or the felicity of the people of the country. No proper attention has been paid to the manners and customs of the people; acts of great oppression and injustice have been committed; and the supreme court has been a source of great dissatisfaction, disorder and confusion.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The Indian nabob or soubadar quarrelled

with the Company, and invested Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governour, and some of the principal persons of the place threw themselves with their chief effects, on board the ships in the river; they who remained, for some hours bravely defended the place; but their ammunition being expended, they surrendered upon terms. The soubadar, a capricious, unfeeling tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governour's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a little but secure prison, called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. Their miseries during the night were inexpressible. And before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation which was generally attended with a horrible frenzy. Among those saved was Mr. Holwell himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe. The insensible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had rooted the English out of his dominions; but the seasonable arrival of admiral Watson, and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession of the place; and the war was soon concluded by the battle of Plassy, gained by the colonel, and the death of the nabob Suraja Dowla, in whose place Mhir Jaffeir, one of his generals, and who had previously signed a secret treaty with Clive to desert his master and amply reward the English, was advanced to the soubahship.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Muxadabad, or Moorshedabad: Benares, lying in the same province, is the Gentoo university, and celebrated for its sanctity. This zemindary, which includes also the sircars of Gazypeur and Chunar, constituted a part of the dominions of Oude or Owdh till 1774, when its tribute or quit-rent of 24 lacks was transferred to the English.

Dacca, a city in the eastern part of the English possessions is noted for its manufactures of delicate muslins. Patna is the capital of Bahar, 400 miles from Calcutta; it is well fortified and a place of considerable trade. Most of the salt-petre exported to England is from this province.

Benares is a rich, compact, and populous city, on the northern bank of the Ganges, 460 miles from Calcutta. This city, anciently called Kasi, was the most early seat of Braminical knowledge or quackery in the north. It was not till the tenth or eleventh century that this sect overturned the worship of Boodh in the Deccan.

Oujein, situated on the north of the Sippara, a branch of the Chumbul, is six miles in circumference, surrounded by a strong wall. The houses are of brick and wood. The market is spacious and paved. In the city is a new palace, 4 mosques, and several Hindoo temples. [*Pinkerton.*]

Chandenagore is the principal place possessed by the French in Bengal: It lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though strongly fortified, furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the English admirals, Watson and Pococke, and colonel Clive, and also was obliged to surrender in the last war, but restored by the peace. Hoogly, which lies fifty miles to the north of

Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richest of all Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well fortified factory. The search for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hoogly, for about fifty miles farther. Deccan is said to be the largest city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. It contains an English and a Dutch factory. The other chief towns are Cassumbazar, Chincura, Barnagua and Maldo; besides a number of other places of less note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

We know little concerning the province or soubah of Malva, which lies to the west of Bengal: Sindia and Holkar divide the largest part of it. The capital of the former is Ougein, and of Holkar, the city of Indoor. It is as fertile as the other provinces, and its chief city is Ratipor. The province of Kandish included that of Berar and part of Orixa, and its capital is Brampur, or Burhanpoor, a flourishing city, and it carries on a vast trade in chintzes, calicoes, and embroidered stuffs. Cattack is the capital of Orixa, and lies in the only road between Bengal and the northern sircars, and belongs to the Berar Rajah Moodajee Boosla, whose dominions are very extensive. Of the five northern sircars, Cicacole, Rajamundry, Ellore and Condapilly are in possession of the English, and Gunton is in the hands of the Nizam.

We shall speak of those provinces belonging to the Malabar, or Coromandel coast, the two great objects of English commerce in that country. And first, of the eastern, or Coromandel coast.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the southernmost point of the peninsula. It is about the bigness of the kingdom of Portugal, and is said to have been governed by a sovereign king, who had under him seventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax; now, the case is much altered, the prince of the country being scarce able to protect himself and his people from the depredations of his neighbours, but by a tribute to buy them off. The capital is Tritchinopoly. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist of a pearl fishery upon its coast. Tanjore is a little kingdom, lying to the east of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and some British subjects connected with him. Within it lies the Danish East-India settlement of Tanquebar, and the fortress of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch the last war, and confirmed to the English by the late treaty of peace. The capital city is Tanjore, governed by a rajah under the English protection.

The Carnatick, as it is now called, is well known to the English. It is bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal, on the north by the river Christina, which divides it from Golconda; on the west by Visapur, or Visipour; and, on the south, by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjore; being in length, from south to north, about 345 miles. If Tanjore, Marrawar, Tritchinopoly, Madura and Tinevelly be included, and they are all appendages of the Carnatick, the length of it from north to south is 570 miles, but no where more than 110 wide, and chiefly no more than 80. The capital of the Carnatick is Bisnagar, and of the English ally the nabob, Arcot, whose dominions commence on

the south of the Guntoo sircar, and extend along the whole coast of Coromandel to Cape Comorin. The country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies fort St. David's, or Cuddalore, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to the English trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the East-Indies, but which had been repeatedly taken by the English, and as often restored by the treaties of peace.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the English East-India Company's dominions in that part of the East-Indies, and is distant eastward from London, about 4800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort; but no pains have been spared by the Company in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexion of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The white town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badness of its situation, which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, that are but a week's journey, distant. These mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, enclosing the contents by pallisadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The district, belonging to Madras, does not extend much more than 40 miles round, and is of little value for its produce. Eighty thousand inhabitants, of various nations, are said to be dependent upon Madras; but its safety consists in the superiority of the English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia and Mocha.

The reader needs not be informed of the immense fortunes acquired by the English, upon this coast, within these thirty years; but some of these fortunes appear to have been obtained by the most iniquitous practices. There seems to have been some fundamental errors in the constitution of the East-India Company. The directors considered the riches acquired by their governours and other servants as being plundered from the Company, and accordingly sent out superintendants to control their governours and overgrown servants, and have from time to time changed their governours and members of the council there. As this is a subject of the greatest importance that ever perhaps occurred in the geography of a commercial country, the reader will indulge us in one or two reflections.

The English East-India Company, through the distractions of the Mogul empire, the support of their government, and the undaunted, but fortunate successes of their military officers, have acquired so amazing a property in this peninsula, and in Indostan, that it is superior to the revenues of many crowned heads; and some of their own servants pretend, that when all their expenses are paid, their clear revenue amounts to nearly two millions sterling, out of which they were to pay 400,000l. annually to the government, while suffered to enjoy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence it arises, is best known to the Company; part of it, however,

has been granted in property, and part of it is secured on mortgages, for discharging their expenses in supporting the interests of their friends, the emperor, and the respective soubadars and nabobs they have assisted.

This Company has exercised many rights appropriated to sovereignty; such as those of holding forts, coining money, and the like. Those powers were thought incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited Company, and therefore the English ministry and parliament have repeatedly interfered. In order to regulate the affairs of the Company, a board of control at home is at length established. It has also been hoped, that in consequence of this interference of the government, such measures may be taken with the Eastern princes and potentates, as may render the acquisitions of the Company permanent and national.

We have already mentioned the kingdom of Golconda, which, besides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapness of its provisions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January. Golconda is subject to a prince, called Nizam or soubadar of the Deccan, who is rich, and can raise 100,000 men. The famous diamond mine, Raolconda, is in this province. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagur, or Hyderabad, but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda, and comprises the eastern part of Dowletabad. E. S. E. of Golconda lies Masulipatam, where the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at Ganjam and Visagapatam, on this coast; and the Dutch at Narsipore. The province of Orissa, from whence the English Company draw some part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from east to west about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed chiefly by Moodajee Boonslah, and his brother Bembajee, allies to the Mahrattas. In this province stands the idolatrous temple of Jaganaut, which they say is attended by 500 priests. The idol is an irregular pyramidical black stone, of about 4 or 500lb. weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to represent eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with vermillion. Near this is the temple of the Sun, one of the most magnificent buildings in the world.

Major Rennell observes, that there is a void space between the known parts of Berar, Golconda, Orissa and the northern sircars, of near 300 miles in length, and 250 in breadth; and that it is not likely to be filled up, unless a great change takes place in European politicks in India. The British possessions in the northern sircars extend only 70 miles by land, and in some places not more than 30, which form a slip of 350 miles in length, bounded towards the continent, by a ridge of mountains. Within these and towards Berar, is an extensive tract of woody and mountainous country, with which the adjacent provinces appear to have scarcely any communication. Though surrounded by people highly civilized, and who abound in useful manufactures, it is said, that the few specimens of the miserable inhabitants of this tract who have appeared in the sircars, use no covering but a wisp of straw. This wild country extends about 160 miles, and the first civilized people beyond them are the Berar Mahrattas.

The country of the Deccan comprehends several large provinces, and some kingdoms; particularly those of Baglana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Visiapour. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and governments of those provinces, are extremely unsettled; and since their reduction by Aurengzebe, or his father, have been subject to almost annual revolutions and alterations. The principal towns are Aurungabad, and Doltabad, or Dowlatabad. The latter is the strongest place in all Indostan. Near it lies the famous pagod of Elora, in a plain of about two leagues square. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thousand figures that surround it, are said to be cut out of the natural rock, and to surpass all the other efforts of human art. Telenga lies on the east of Golconda, and its capital, Beder, contains a garrison of 3,000 men. The inhabitants of this province speak a language peculiar to themselves.

Guzerat or Gujerat is a maritime province on the gulf of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India, but inhabited by a fierce, rapacious people. It is said to contain 35 cities. Amedabad is the capital of the province, where there is an English factory, and is said, in wealth, to vie with the richest towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues distant lies Surat, where the English have a flourishing factory.

Visiapour is a large province; the western part is called Konhan, which is intermingled with the Portuguese possessions. The rajah of Visiapour is said to have had a yearly revenue of six millions sterling, and to bring to the field 150,000 soldiers. The capital is of the same name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coast are Damam, Bassaim Tropor or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur, Dabul-Rajahpur, Gheriah, and Vingorla. The Portuguese have lost several valuable possessions on this coast, and those which remain are on the decline.

Among the islands lying upon the same coast is that of Bombay, belonging to the English East-India Company. Its harbour can conveniently hold 1000 ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its situation and harbours are its chief recommendations, being destitute of almost all the conveniencies of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance taught them preservatives against its unwholesomeness. The best water there is preserved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy seasons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone. Many black merchants reside here. This island was part of the portion paid with the infanta of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the East-India Company; and the island is still divided into three Roman catholick parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and what are called catholick Mestizos and Canarins; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese, and the other the Aborigines of the country. The English have fallen upon methods to render this island and town, under all their disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The governour and council of Bombay have lucrative posts, as well as the officers under them. The troops on the island are commanded by English officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and disciplined, are here, and all over

the East-Indies, called Sea-poys. The inhabitants of the island amount to near 60,000 of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmolested. Here, besides Europeans of all countries, you meet with Turks, Persians, Arabians, Armenians, a mixed race of the vilest of their species, decended from the Portuguese, and the out-casts from the Gentoo religion, &c. and also captives that are slaves to every other tribe. The Turks that resort to this place on account of trade, are, like the rest of their countrymen, stately, grave and reserved; and honest in their dealings. The Persians are more gay, lively and conversible, but less honest in matters of trade, than the saturnine Turks. The Arabians are all life and fire, and when they treat with you on any subject, will make you a fine oration in flowing numbers, and a musical cadence; but they are the most dishonest of all. The Armenians are generally handsome in their features, mild in their tempers, and in their nature kind and beneficent. They are a kind of Christians, and an honour to that sect, beyond numbers that go from England.

Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the most inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural size, cut coarsely in stone, presents itself on the landing place, near the bottom of a mountain. An easy slope then leads to a stupendous temple hewn out of the solid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantick figures, which have been multiplied by the blind zeal of the Portuguese. Besides the temple, are various images and groups on each hand, cut in the stone; one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance of the judgment of Solomon; also a collonade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of resemblance to any of the Gentoo works. These subjects not belonging to the common Hindoo system are probably not more ancient than the tenth or eleventh century. [*Pinkerton.*]

Surat has a harbour small and incommodious, yet is the only one on the western coast in which ships are safe during the monsoon rains, from May to September. The population is 500,000, a considerable part of whom are Moors, that is Arabs, Persians, Moguls and Turks, professing Mahometanism, but retaining many pagan rites. [*Stavorinus. Pinkerton.*]

The island and city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in the East-Indies, lies about 30 miles south of Vingorla. The island is about twenty-seven miles in compass. It has one of the finest and best fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a most superb settlement, and was surpassed neither in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is said that the revenues of the Jesuits, upon this island, equalled those of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the rest of the Portuguese settlements on this coast, is under a viceroy, who still keeps up the remains of the ancient splendour of the government. The rich peninsula of Salvett is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies south of the Portuguese territories, and is governed by a

rajah, tributary to the Mogul. Canoree lies about forty miles to the south of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its soil is famous for producing rice, that supplies many parts of Europe, and some of the Indies. The Canorines are said generally to be governed by a lady, whose son has the title of rajah, and her subjects are accounted the bravest and most civilized of any in that peninsula, and remarkably devoted to commerce.

The celebrated Hyder Ally, with whom the Company formerly made a peace, but with whom their servants soon after embroiled them, and who lately made a violent irruption into the Carnatick, took many of its chief places, obtained great advantages over the Company's troops, and brought his forces to the gates of Madras, but died before the conclusion of the war, is said to be a native of Mysore, which lies to the southwest of the Carnatick; and the christians of the apostle St. Thomas live at the foot of the Gatti mountains. The dominions of Tippoo Saib, son of Hyder Ally, comprehend generally the provinces of Mysore, Bednore, Zaimbetore, Zanare and Dindigal, besides his acquisition to the northward from the Mahrattas; they are at least 400 miles in length, and in the breadth from 290 to 130, so that he hath the largest share in the peninsula.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole southwest coast of the peninsula, yet it is confined at present to the country so called, lying on the west of Cape Comorin, and called the dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatick; and the country itself is rich and fertile, but pestered with green adders, whose poison is incurable. It was formerly a large kingdom of itself. The most remarkable places in Malabar are Cranganore, containing a Dutch factory and fort: Tellichery, where the English have a small settlement, keeping a constant garrison of thirty or forty soldiers. Calicut, where the French and Portuguese have small factories, besides various other distinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the southernmost part of this peninsula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the same garden the two seasons of the year; the trees being loaded with blossoms and fruit on the one side, while on the other side they are stripped of all their leaves. This surprising phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains so often mentioned, which traverse the whole peninsula from south to north. On the opposite sides of the Cape, the winds are constantly at variance, blowing from the west on the west side, and from the east on the eastern side.

Before we take our leave of India, it may be proper to observe, that in the district of Cochin, within Malabar, are to be found some thousands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manasseh, and to have records engraven on copper plates in Hebrew characters. They are said to be so poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. The like discoveries of the Jews and their records have been made in China, and other places of Asia, which have occasioned various speculations among the learned.

It appears to be the interest of the East-India Company, that their governments in India should interfere as little as possible in the domestick or national quarrels of the country powers, and that they

should always endeavour to be in a state of peace and tranquillity with their neighbours. But these maxims of sound policy they have not adhered to; the governours and servants of the East-India Company have unnecessarily, and sometimes very iniquitously, embroiled themselves with the country powers, and engaged in wars of a very pernicious and indefensible nature. The wars into which they have entered with the Mahrattas, and with that enterprising prince Hyder Ally, now dead, but succeeded by a warlike son, Tippoo Saib, have been attended with an enormous expense, and been extremely prejudicial to the interests of the company, and the nation at home. By temporary plans of violence and injsutice, and sometimes disregarding their own treaties, they have forfeited the good opinion of the natives; and by exciting the indignation of the country princes against them, greatly lessened the security of the possessions of the Company.

The emperor of Indostan, or Great Mogul (so called from being descended from Tamerlane the Mongul, or Mogul Tartar) on his advancement to the throne, assumes some grand title; as, *The Conqueror of the World; the Ornament of the throne, &c.* but he is never crowned.

History.] The reader will find much entertaining and useful information, both historical and geographical, concerning this country, in a work in three quarto volumes, published at Calcutta, in 1784, entitled "Ayen Akberry, or the Institutes of the emperor Akber." Translated from the original Persian, by Francis Gladwin. This valuable work is in Harvard College Library, at Cambridge.

THE PENINSULA OF INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES,

CALLED THE FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 2000	between	1° and 30° north lat.	741,500
Breadth 1000		92° and 109° east lon.	

Boundaries.] THIS peninsula is bounded by Thibet and China, on the north; by China and the Chinese sea, on the east; by the same sea and the straits of Malacca, on the south; and by the bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the west. The space between Bengal and China is now called the province of Mecklus, and other districts, subject to the king of Ava or Burmah.

Grand Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. Miles.
On the northwest	Achan, Ava, Arracan	Camdaria, Ava 17,000,000 inhab., Arracan	180,000
On the southwest	Pegu, Martaban	Pegu E. l. 97°, N. la. 17° 30'. Martaban	50,000
	Siam	Siam, E. l. 100° 55', N. lat. 14° 18'.	170,000
	Malacca	Malacca, E. l. 101°, N. la. 2° 12'.	48,000
On the northeast	Tonquin	Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 105°, N. lat. 21° 30'	112,000
	Laos	Lanchang	59,400
	Cochin China	Thoanoa	61,900
On the southeast	Cambodia, Chiampa	Cambodia, Padram	60,200

Name.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was best known to the Persians. The whole of this peninsula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly so to the moderns.

Air and Climate.] Authors differ concerning the air of this country, some preferring that of the southern, and some that of the northern parts. It is generally agreed that the air of the former is hot and dry, but in some places moist, and consequently unhealthy. The climate is subject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, so that the people build their houses upon high pillars to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of seasons, but wet and dry. Easterly and westerly *monsoons* (which is an Indian word) prevail in this country.

Mountains.] Those run from north to south almost the whole length of the country; but the lands near the sea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy season.

Rivers.] The chief are Sanpoo or Burrumpooter, Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava or the great river Nou Kian.

Bays and Straits.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin China. The straits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Bansack.

Soil and Produce of the different Nations.] The soil of this peninsula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delicious fruits that are found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as roots and vegetables; and in Ava, a quantity of salt-petre, and the best teek-timber, or Indian oak, which for ship-building in warm climates, is of much longer duration than any European oak. Teek ships of 40 years old are no uncommon objects in the Indian seas. This peninsula abounds likewise in silks, elephants, and quadrupeds both domestick and wild, that are common in the southern kingdoms of Asia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethysts and other precious stones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the most healthful country of all the peninsula. In some places, especially towards the north, the inhabitants

have swellings in their throats, said to be owing to the badness of their water.

Inhabitants, Customs and Diversions.] The Tonquinese are excellent mechanicks and fair traders; but greatly oppressed by their king and great lords. His majesty engrosses the trade, and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquinese are fond of lacker houses, which are unwholesome and poisonous. The people in the south are a savage race, and go almost naked, with large silver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or shell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin-China, the two sexes are scarcely distinguishable by their dress, which resembles that of the Persians. The people of quality are fond of English broadcloth, red or green; and others wear a dark coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the best countries in Asia, the inhabitants prefer dog's flesh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, because the king is sole proprietor of all the gold and silver, and other metals, found in his kingdom. They live, however, easy and comfortably. Almost every housekeeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives and women, polygamy being practised all over India.

It is unquestionable that those Indians, as well as the Chinese, had the use of gun-powder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally ascribed to the Azemese. The inhabitants of the southern division of this peninsula go under the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious superstitions that prevail in this peninsula are extremely gross, yet the people believe in a future state; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and such vessels of gold and silver as they think can be of use to them in their future life. The people in this peninsula are commonly very fond of shew, and often make an appearance beyond their circumstances. They are delicate in no part of their dress but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathsome; for besides dogs, they eat rats, mice, serpents, and stinking fish. The people of Arracan are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to consummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women most when in a state of pregnancy. Their treatment of the sick is ridiculous beyond belief; and in many places, when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is exposed on the bank of some river, where he is either drowned, or devoured by birds or beasts of prey. Notwithstanding the great antiquity of most Indian nations, it is said, on the veracity of some who have seen them, that on the confines of Arracan and Pegu, there is a people (if solitary savages roaming through woods in quest of prey, deserve the name of people) that appear in the very first stage of society. They go absolutely naked without the smallest covering on any part of their bodies. They live on fruits, which grow spontaneously, in the uncultivated desert they inhabit, in great abundance; and on the flesh of animals, which they tear alive and devour raw. They sit on their hams, with their legs and arms disposed in the manner of monkeys. At the approach of men, they fly into their woods; They take care of their offspring, and live in

families, but seem to have no ideas of subordination, of rank, or civil government.

The diversions common in this country are fishing and hunting, the celebrating of festivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from evening to morning.

Language.] The language of the court of Delhi is Persian, but in this peninsula it is chiefly Malayan, intespersed with other dialects.

Learning and Learned Men.] The Bramins, who are the tribe of the priesthood, descend from those Brachmans who are mentioned to us with so much reverence by ancient writers; and although much inferior, either as philosophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their ancestors, as priests, their religious doctrines are still implicitly followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the source of all the knowledge which exists in Indostan. But the utmost stretch of their mathematical knowledge seems to be the calculation of eclipses. They have a good idea of logick; but it does not appear that they have any treatises on rhetorick; their ideas of musick, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous: and in medicine they derive no assistance from the knowledge of anatomy, since dissections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Asiaticks is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the dictions of their historians very diffuse and verbose; but though the manner of eastern compositions differs from the correct taste of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Asiatick authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow observes, that in the Shanscrita, or learned language of the Bramins, which is the grand repository of the religion, philosophy, and history of the Hindoos, there are in particular many hundred volumes in prose, which treat of the ancient Indians and their history. The same writer also remarks, that the Shanscrita records contain accounts of the affairs of Western Asia very different from what any tribe of the Arabians have transmitted to posterity; and that it is more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity than the latter. The Arabian writers have been generally so much prejudiced against the Hindoos, that their accounts of them are by no means to be implicitly relied on.

Mr. Dow observes, that the small progress, which correctness and elegance of sentiment and diction have made in the East, did not proceed from a want of encouragement to literature. On the contrary, it appears, that no princes in the world patronized men of letters with more generosity and respect than the Mahometan emperors of Indostan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth which much astonish Europeans, but an infallible road for rising to the first offices of the state. The character of the learned was at the same time so sacred, that the tyrants who made a pastime of imbruing their hands in the blood of their other subjects, not only abstained from offering violence to men of genius, but stood in fear of their strength.

Manufactures and Commerce.] These vary in the different countries of this peninsula; but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in some parts, are said to manufacture

their salt out of ashes. In all handicraft trades that they understand, the people are more industrious, and better workmen, than most of the Europeans; and in weaving, sewing, embroidering, and some other manufactures, it is said that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineness of their linen, and their fillagree work in gold and silver, are beyond any thing of those kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in short, is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been so from the earliest ages: It was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their highest materials of luxury. The greatest share of it through events foreign to this part of our work, is now centered in England, though that of the Dutch is still very considerable; that of the French has for some time declined, nor is that of the Swedes and Danes of much importance.

Constitution, Government, Rarities and Cities.] This article is so extensive, that it requires a slight review of the kingdoms that form this peninsula. In Azem, it hath already been observed, the king is proprietor of all the gold and silver; he pays little or nothing to the Great Mogul; his capital is Ghergong or Kirganu. We know little or nothing of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was anciently subject to the kings of Arracan; and that they send to the Chinese gold and silk, for which they receive silver in return. Arracan lies to the south of Tipra, and is governed by twelve princes, subject to the chief king, who resides in his capital. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, seven idols, cast in gold of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds, and other precious stones. Pegu is about 350 English miles in length, and almost the same in breadth. The riches of the king, when an independent state, were almost incredible; some of his idols, as big as life, being of massy gold and silver. His revenues arose from the rents of lands, of which he was sole proprietor, and from duties on merchandize; so that some thought him to be the richest monarch in the world, excepting the Chinese emperor. He was said to be able to bring a million, and on occasion, a million and a half of soldiers to the field, well clothed and armed; and to be master of 800 trained elephants, each with a castle on his back, holding four soldiers. The constitution of this empire is of the feudal kind, for he assigns lands and towns to his nobles upon military tenures. In the year 1754, Pegu was reduced to the state of a dependent province by the king of Ava. Macao is the great mart of trade in that province.

The kingdom of Ava lies east of Arracan, from which it is separated by a ridge of lofty mountains; on the north-east and north it borders on China and Siam. Rain seldom falls in this country. The articles of commerce are rice, teek-timber for ship building, on which the English East-India Company greatly depend for supplies, aloes, spices, &c. They have mines of silver, copper and lead. The climate is salubrious and the soil fertile. Their system of jurisprudence is replete with sound morality; and their laws are administered with scrupulous exactness. When a man dies intestate, three

fourths of his property is inherited by his children born in wedlock. They burn their dead; but people of high distinction are embalmed and kept six or eight weeks. Honey is the principal ingredient used to preserve the body. The population of this kingdom is supposed to be about 17,000,000. They are Pagans. [*Symes' Embassy to Ava.*]

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos, formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay, but that is now subject to Ava; we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is said to be immensely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the gross superstitions of the East, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding one sovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is absolutely despotick, and lives in indescribable pomp and magnificence; but is of the Lama religion, and often the slave of his priests and ministers.

The kingdom of Siam has been often described by travellers and missionaries; it is a rich and flourishing kingdom, and approaches, in its government, policy, and the quickness and acuteness of its inhabitants, very near to the Chinese. The kingdom of Siam is surrounded by high mountains, which, on the east side, separate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos; on the west, from Pegu; and on the north, from Ava, or, more properly, from Jangoma: On the south it is washed by the river Siam, and has the peninsula of Malacca, the north-west part whereof is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and it is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants of both sexes are more modest than any found in the rest of this peninsula. Great care is taken of the education of their children. Their marriages are simple, and performed by their talapoins, or priests, sprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating some prayers. We are told that gold is so abundant in this country, that their most ponderous images are made of it; and that it is seen in vast quantities on the outside of the king's palace. These relations are found, by modern travellers, to be the fictions of French and other missionaries; for though the country has mines of gold, their ornaments are either excessively thin plates of that metal, or a very bright lacker, that cover wooden or other materials. The government here is extremely despotick; even servants must appear before their masters in a kneeling posture; and the mandarins are prostrate before the king. Siam, the capital, is represented as a large city, but scarcely a sixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bankok, which stands about 18 leagues to the south of Siam, and 12 miles from the sea, is the only place towards the coast that is fortified with walls, batteries, and brass cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which stands on the east side of the peninsula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninsula of Malacca is a large country, and contains several kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are said to be real masters and sovereigns of the whole peninsula, being in possession of the capital, Malacca. The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the purest of any spoken in all the Indies. We are told by the latest

travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants' teeth, canes and gums. Some missionaries pretend that it is the Golden Chersonesus, or Peninsula of the ancients, and that the inhabitants used to measure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent situation of this country admits of a trade with India; so that when it was first discovered by the Portuguese, (who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch) Malacca was the richest city in the East, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at present, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chinese. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an industrious, ingenious people, is easily accounted for from the tyranny of the Dutch, whose interest it is that they should never recover from their present state of ignorance and slavery.

The English carry on a smuggling kind of trade in their country, in ships from the coast of Coromandel and the Bay of Bengal to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governour and council, who little regard the orders of their superiors, provided they can enrich themselves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but, according to the best information, its greatest length, from north to south, is about 520 English miles; and its greatest breadth, from west to east, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a spacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the nation, on account of its sultry air, and the pestiferous gnats, serpents, and other animals, bred in the woods. Its soil, commodities, trade, animals and products by sea and land, are much the same with the other kingdoms of this vast peninsula. The betel, a creeping plant of a peculiar flavour, and, as they say, an excellent remedy for all those diseases that are common to the inhabitants of the East-Indies, is the highest luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peasant; but is very unpalatable and disagreeable to the Europeans. The same barbarous magnificence, the despotism of their king, and the ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the rest of the peninsula. Between Cambodia and Cochin-China lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chinese, and seem therefore to be somewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the western China, is situated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to some authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much less extensive in its breadth from east to west. Laos, Cambodia and Chiampa, as well as some other smaller kingdoms, are said to be tributary to Cochin-China; some particulars of which we have mentioned in the general view of this peninsula. The manners and religion of the people seem to be originally Chinese; and they are very fond of trade. Their king is said to be immensely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the East-Indies; but at the same time we are told, that this mighty prince, as well as the king of Tonquin, is subject to the Chinese emperor. It is reasonable to suppose, that all those rich countries were peopled from China, or at least, that they

had, some time or other, been governed by one head, till the mother empire became so large, that it might be convenient to parcel it out, reserving to itself a kind of feudal superiority over them all.

Tonquin has been already mentioned, and little can be added to what has been said, unless we adopt the fictions of the catholick missionaries. The government of this kingdom, however, is particular. The Tonquinese had revolted from the Chinese, which was attended by a civil war. A compromise at last took place between the chief of the revolt and the representative of the ancient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of the Chouah; but that the Bua, or real king, should retain the royal titles, and be permitted some inconsiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can stir without the permission of the Chouah.

The Chouah resides generally in the capital Cachao, which is situated near the centre of the kingdom. The bua's palace is a vast structure, and has a fine arsenal. The English have a very flourishing house on the north side of the city, conveniently fitted up with store-houses, and office-houses, a noble dining room, and handsome apartments for the merchants, factors, and officers of the Company.

The above is the best account we have been able to give of this vast peninsula. Its rarities, consisting of houses overlaid with gold, and solid idols of the same metal, adorned with an infinite number of precious stones and jewels, are mentioned by many travellers; but it is difficult to give them credit, when we consider the undisciplined weakness of the inhabitants, their superstition, indolence, ignorance, and native timidity; which must render them a prey not only to European adventurers, but to the Tartar conquerors of China. To this, we may add the universally admitted passion of those people for ostentation, and the many discoveries that have been made by candid travellers of their displaying plated or gilded furniture and ornaments at which they are wonderfully expert, for those of massy gold.

The possession of rubies, and other precious stones of an extraordinary size, and even of white and party-coloured elephants, conveys among those credulous people a pre-eminence of rank and royalty, and has sometimes occasioned bloody wars. After all, it must be acknowledged, that however dark the accounts we have of those kingdoms may be, yet there is sufficient evidence to prove, that they are immensely rich in all the treasures of nature; but that those advantages are attended with many natural calamities, such as floods, volcanoes, earthquakes, tempests, and above all, rapacious and poisonous animals, which render the possession of life, even for an hour, precarious and uncertain.

PERSIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 1300 Breadth 1100	between	44° and 70° east longitude. 25° and 44° north latitude.	800,000

Boundaries.] MODERN Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghistan, which divide it from Circassian Tartary, on the north-west; by the Caspian sea, which divides it from Russia, on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Usbec Tartary, on the north-east; by India on the east; by the Indian Ocean and the gulfs of Persia and Ormus, on the south; and by Arabia and Turkey on the west.*

This kingdom is divided into the following provinces: On the frontiers of India are Chorasen, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Esterabad; Sableustan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahor; and Sigistan, the ancient Drangiana. The southern division contains Makeran, Kerman, the ancient Gedrossia and Farsistan, the ancient Persia. The south-west division, on the frontiers of Turkey, contains the province of Chusistan, the ancient Susiana, and Irac-Agem, the ancient Parthia. The north-west division, lying between the Caspian sea and the frontiers of Turkey in Asia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media; Gangea, Daghistan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan and Mazanderan.

Name.] Persia, according to the poets, derived its name from Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danae. Less fabulous authors suppose it derived from Paras, which signifies a horseman; the Persians or Parthians, being always celebrated for their skill in horsemanship.

Air.] In so extensive an empire this is very different. Those parts which border upon Caucasus and Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of those mountains which are commonly covered with snow. The air in the midland provinces of Persia is serene, pure, and exhilerating, but in the southern provinces it is hot, and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the midland parts, which are so often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

Soil and Productions.] These vary like the air. The soil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caspian sea; but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of

* The limits of Persia, according to Sir John Chardin, differ from those of other countries, which are separated from their neighbours by a line, a rivulet, or some other such artificial or natural boundary. "Persia has, on almost every side of it, a space of three or four days' journey, uninhabited, though the soil be, in many places, the best in the world, particularly on the sides of the east and the west. The Persians look upon it as a mark of true grandeur, to leave thus abandoned the countries that lie between great empires, which prevents, they say, contests about their limits, these desert countries serving as walls of separation between kingdoms." [*Harmar's Observ. Vol.* IV. *p.* 276.]

Mount Tauras, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine and other luxuries of life, is equalled by few countries. It produces wine and oil in plenty, senna, rhubarb, and the finest of drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially their dates, oranges, pistachio nuts, melons, cucumbers and garden-stuff, not to mention vast quantities of excellent silk; and the gulf of Bassora formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Ispahan especially, produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, the roses especially, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorifick kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia, are of a most excellent flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as some nations in Europe, by transplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian assafœtida flows from a plant called Hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

Mountains.] These are Caucasus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghistan; and the vast collection of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions, run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

Rivers.] It has been observed, that no country, of so great an extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. The most considerable are those of the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which rises in or near the mountains of Ararat, and, joining their streams, fall into the Caspian sea. Some small rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their streams are so inconsiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even with boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia from Usbec Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the west.

Water.] The scarcity of rivers in Persia is accompanied with a scarcity of water in other respects; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

Metals and Minerals.] Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all, turquoise stones, which are found in Chorasan. Sulphur, salt-petre and antimony are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white and black marble have also been discovered near Taurus.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs and Diversions.] It is impossible to speak with any certainty concerning the population of a country so little known as that of Persia. If we are to judge by the vast armies, in modern as well as ancient times, raised there, the numbers it contains must be very great. The inhabitants are computed at 10,000,000; of these 6,000,000 are supposed to belong to Western Persia. [*Pinkerton.*]

The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome; the men being fond of Georgian and Circassian women. Their complexions towards the south are somewhat swarthy. The men shave their heads, but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side,

and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; but religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them cost twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten.

They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, so that they never pull off their caps or their turbans, out of respect, even to the king. Their dress is very simple. Next to their skin they wear calico shirts, over them a vest, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash, and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are commonly very expensive; consisting of the richest furs, silks, muslin, cottons, and the like valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear a kind of loose boots on their legs, and slippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their sash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open; so that their dress upon the whole is far better adapted for the purposes both of health and activity, than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dress of the women is not much different; and, as well as that of the men, is very costly: They are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours and washes.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent washings and ablutions, which are the more necessary, as they seldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner, upon fruits, sweetmeats and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repasts cakes of rice, and others of wheat flour; and as they esteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat, after it is dressed, these cakes are made thin, that they may be easily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton or fowls, is so prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is set in order before them, they eat fast, and without any ceremony. But it is observed by a late traveller, that when the oldest man in the company speaks, though he be poor and set at the lower end of the room, they all give a strict attention to his words.

In their common discourses they often introduce moral or religious sentences and poetical narrations from their poets and other writers. Reflection and repetition being the means of strengthening and supporting the memory, the custom, instead of being called pedantry, ought to be viewed as laudable. It is to be devoutly wished the same practice in this country might supersede that barrenness of conversation and more pernicious cards, which are so common.

[*Hanway.*]

They are temperate, but use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks, nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are great masters of ceremony towards their superiors, and so polite, that they accommodate Europeans who visit them, with stools, that they may not be forced to sit cross-legged. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, which they smoke through a tube fixed in water, so as to be cool in the mouth, that when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country rather than be debarred from that enjoyment.

The Persians are naturally fond of poetry, moral sentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars and their national revolutions, have mingled the native Persians with barbarous nations, and are said to have taught them dissimulation; but they are still pleasing and plausible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for hospitality.

The Persians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuscripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great foible seems to be ostentation in their equipages and dresses; nor are they less jealous of their women than the Turks, and other eastern nations. They are fond of musick, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies; but their chief diversions are those of the field, hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms, in all which they are very dexterous. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, fighting of wild beasts; and privately playing at games of chance.

Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and travellers or merchants who intend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to the cadee, or judge, for a wife during the time they propose to stay. The cadee, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honest, and free from diseases; and he becomes surety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Russian embassy to Persia declares, that, among thousands, there has not been one instance of their dishonesty during the time agreed upon.

Religion.] The Persians are Mahometants of the sect of Ali; for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Omar and Abu Bekr, call them hereticks. Their religion is, if possible, in some things more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with some Bramin superstitions. When they are taxed by the Christians with drinking strong liquors, as many of them do, they answer very sensibly, "You Christians whore and get drunk, though you know you are committing sins, which is the very case with us."

In one point they far excel many professing christians, who would be as ashamed to be seen at prayer, or attending the ordinances of Christ, as in the commission of some disgraceful crime. The Persians have no marks of this false modesty. If a bold, masculine piety and a sincere, awful sense of the Deity are very consistent things, then this fear of man among Christians must be owing to an error in education. [*Hanway.*]

Having mentioned the Bramins, the comparison between them and the Persian *guebres* or *gaurs*, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient magi, the followers of Zoroaster, may be highly worth a learned disquisition: That both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be easily proved; but the Indian bramins and parsees accuse the *gaurs*, who still worship the fire, of having sensualized those ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combustible ground,

about 10 miles distant from Baku, a city in the north of Persia, is the scene of the *guebres* devotion. It must be admitted, that this ground is impregnated with very surprising inflammatory qualities, and contains several old little temples; in one of which the *guebres* pretend to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire which rises from the end, and a large hollow cane stuck in the ground, resembling a lamp, burning with very pure spirits. If any tube be inserted in the ground, and the top of the ground touched with a coal, a flame bursts forth. They have no floors; this is the mode of their lighting their rooms, of cooking their victuals, and by these tubes, piling the stones over them, they burn their lime. Their springs, particularly on the isle of Wetoy, furnish a black naptha in great quantities. When scattered on the sea it burns; the flame is often wafted to a great distance. [*Pinkerton.*]

The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the *gaurs*, who were banished out of Persia by Shah Abbas. Their sect is said to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans seem early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many sects are found that evidently have Christianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called Souffees, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sabean Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahometanism; and are numerous towards the Persian gulf. We have already mentioned the Armenian and Georgian Christians, who are very numerous in Persia. The present race of Persians are said to be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing chiefly to their late wars with the Turks.

Learning and learned Men.] The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for both; and their poets renowned all over the East. There is a manuscript at Oxford (Eng.) containing the lives of a hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets. Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated of them. The former comprised the history of Persia in a series of epick poems, which employed him for nearly thirty years, and which are said by Mr. Jones to be "a glorious monument of Eastern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Schiras and flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many fine pieces, both in prose and verse. Shemseddin was one of the most eminent lyrick poets that Asia has produced; and Nakhsbeb wrote in Persian a book called the "Tales of a Parrot," not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a most animated and elegant poet, who flourished in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whose beautiful compositions on a great variety of subjects, are preserved at Oxford, in twenty-two volumes. Hariri composed in a rich, elegant, and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interspersed with a number of agreeable adventures, and several fine pieces of poetry.

At present, learning is at a very low ebb among the Persians. Their boasted skill in astronomy is now reduced to a mere smattering

in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology; a vain sophistry which connects the brief destiny of man with the revolutions of suns and stars, and excludes GOD from the government of the world. No people in the world are more superstitious than the Persians. The learned profession in greatest esteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer, which often defeats the ends of the prescription. It is said, however, that the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country; as equally rare are many other diseases that are fatal in other places; such as the gout, the stone, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physick is therefore pretty much circumscribed, and they are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief knowledge of it is in letting blood; for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

The education of the modern Persians is chiefly military. Their splendid flatteries show they have lost the noble system of their ancestors, whose first object was to teach their children to speak *truth*. This single precept leads to consequences infinitely useful; there being not only a connection between truth and morality, but falsehood lessens the mental powers, and necessarily produces misconception and incorrect reasoning, and this impairs the judgment, and produces imbecility of mind. [*Pinkerton.*]

Antiquities and Curiosities, natural and artificial.] The monuments of antiquity in Persia, are more celebrated for their magnificence and expense than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and composed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Persia, but void of that elegance and beauty which is displayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Persia are stupendous works, being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with sculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar, to be seen at Ispahan, sixty feet high, consisting of the skulls of beasts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the suppression of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect such a column of human skulls; but upon the submission of the rebels, he performed his vow by substituting those of brutes, each of the rebels furnishing one.

The baths near Gombroon work such cures, that they are esteemed among the natural curiosities of Persia. The springs of the famous Naphtha near Baku, are mentioned often in natural history for their surprising qualities; but the chief of the natural curiosities in this country, is the burning phenomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of RELIGION.

Houses, Cities, and publick Edifices.] The houses of men of quality in Persia, are in the same taste with those of the Asiatick Turks already described. They are seldom above one story high, built of

bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houses being built apart. Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly consists of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which serve them likewise as coverlids, with carpets under them.

Ispahan, or Spahawn the capital of Persia, is seated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with water. It is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houses, where they spend their summer evenings; and different families associate together. The royal square is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth; and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Ispahan 160 mosques, 1,800 caravanseras, 260 publick baths, a prodigious number of fine squares, streets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to shade and better accomodate the people. This capital is said formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, so that we may easily suppose, that it has lost great part of its magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5,000 of its houses were inhabited.

Schiras lies about 200 miles to the south of Astrachan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers, fruits and vines of which are incomparable. The vines of Schiras are reckoned the best of any in Persia. This town is the capital of Pars, the ancient Persia, and has a college for the study of eastern learning. It is four miles in circuit, and is enclosed with a wall 25 feet high, 10 feet thick, with round towers 80 paces distant from each other. The police of this and the other cities of Persia is very strict. It contains an uncommon number of mosques, and is adorned by many noble buildings, but its streets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houses are inhabited.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Persian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The English and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Persians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which set out from various inland cities of Asia, under the convoy of guards.

Teflis is the capital of Georgia, two miles in circuit with a population of 20,000; more than half Armenians. [*Tournefort.*]

Derbent is on the Caspian sea; the harbour is so bad, that its commerce is small, except inland with Ghilan, to which saffron is exported. [*Gmelin.*]

Erivan is the capital of Persian Armenia; the houses, like most of those in Persia, are meanly built. Provisions are plenty and the wine good. Not far to the S. W. is the celebrated Mount Ararat, on which the ark of Noah rested. The summit is inaccessible.

Kom is a considerable city of 15000 houses; the principal manufactures are white earthen ware, soap, and sword blades. It stands on a considerable river which afterwards is lost in the great salt desert. [*Chardin.*]

Mosques are religious buildings, square, and generally of stone; and are pretty much the same in all Mahometan countries. Before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whose roof is supported by marble pillars. Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the mosque. About every mosque there are six high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers as well as the mosques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence, instead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter the mosque; nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Near most mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniences for reading the Koran, and praying.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but oftener circular, built of white well polished stone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the first for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholesome; though to those not accustomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and stretches his limbs as if he was dislocating every bone in the body; all which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In publick bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when, all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath display their finest clothes.

We might here attempt to describe the eastern seraglios or harems, the women's apartments; but from the most credible accounts, they are contrived according to the taste and conveniency of the owner, and divided into a certain number of apartments, which are seldom or never entered by strangers; and there is no country where women are so strictly guarded and confined as among the great men in Persia.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world in silk, woollen, mohair, carpets and leather. Their works in these join fancy, taste and elegance, to richness, neatness, and shew; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists, which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. Their jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsy

workmen; and they are ignorant of lock making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. Upon the whole they lie under inexpressible disadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often engross either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. Strangers among them transact the principal part of the mercantile business; trade not being honourable among the Persians. The Armenian Christians and Hindoos are their chief traders. [*Pinkerton.*] The trade between the English and other nations, by the gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. The great scheme of the English, in trading with the Persians through Russia, promised vast advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto answered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Petersburg is not fond of suffering the English to establish themselves upon the Caspian sea, the navigation of which is now possessed by the Russians; but nothing can be said with certainty on that head, till the government of Persia is in a more settled condition than it is at present.

Constitution and Government.] The government of Persia, like that of all the eastern countries seems to have been always despotick. The state of the people is miserable. They are subject to the arbitrary power and extortions of the numerous Khans or Chiefs. These Khans are sometimes governours of provinces, and sometimes possessors of only small districts, which they inherit from their fathers. [*Pinkerton.*]

The Persians, however, have some fundamental rules of government. They exclude from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualification for the royal succession. In other respects the king's will was a law for the people. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised by the Mahometan kings of Persia, are almost incredible, especially during the 15th and 16th centuries. The reason given to the Christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their most celebrated princes, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility, so that the respect due to every man, on account of his high station, expires with himself. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

Revenues.] The crown claims one third of the cattle, corn and fruits of his subjects, and likewise a third of the silk and cotton. No rank or condition of Persians is exempted from severe taxations and services. Taxes were paid partly in kind. Thus Kurdistan furnished butter, and Georgia female slaves. [*Chardin.*] The governours of provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining

their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expenses of the court, king's household, and great officers of state. After saying thus much, the reader cannot doubt that the revenues of the Persian kings were prodigious; but nothing can be said with any certainty in the present distracted state of that country. Even the water that is let into fields and gardens is subject to a tax; and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

Military Strength.] This consisted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of the 17th century, however, their kings have raised bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited in case of a defeat. The Persians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war, until Kouli Khan built a royal navy; but since his death we hear no more of their fleet.

Some precepts in the laws of Zoroaster cannot be observed at sea; the Persians therefore abhor navigation, and consider seamen as Atheists. The Persians have never been a maritime people.

[*Pinkerton.*]

Arms and Titles.] The arms of the Persian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the rising sun. His title is Shah, or the *Disposer of Kingdoms.* Shah, or Khan, and Sultan, which he assumes likewise, are Tartar titles. To acts of state the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name; but the grant runs in this manner: *This act is given by whom the universe obeys.*

History.] All ancient historians mention the Persian monarchs and their grandeur; and no empire has undergone a greater variety of governments. It is here sufficient to say, that the Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian, and that Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Christ, and restored the Israelites, who had been captives at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Christ. When Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, their posterity were conquered by the Romans. These last, however, never fully subdued Persia, and the natives had princes of their own, by the name of Arsaces, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by the famous Tamerlane, whose posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, Cheki Adir, the ancestor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be descended from Mahomet himself. His successors, though some of them were valiant and politick, and enlarged the empire, and from him sometimes called Sophis, proved in general to be a disgrace to humanity, by their cruelty,* ignorance and indolence, which brought them into

* The instances of wanton cruelty, and the most savage barbarity recorded of some of the kings of Persia, are shocking to humanity, and a striking evidence of the miseries and calamities occasioned by despotick power. Shah Abbas, surnamed the Great, having three sons, caused the eyes of the two youngest to be put out, and afterwards put the eldest to death. He was succeeded by his grandson, who begun his reign by ordering the eyes of his only brother to be cut out; and

such disrepute with their subjects, barbarous as they were, that Hassein, a prince of the Sefi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the representative of the Sefi family, had escaped from the rebels, and, assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At last the secret ambition of Nadir broke out, and, after assuming the name of Thâmas Kouli Khan, and pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, he rebelled against his sovereign, made him prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

This usurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir; made a successful expedition into Indostan, where he acquired an amazing booty, but brought back an inconsiderable part of this booty from India, losing great part of it upon his return, by the Mahrattas and various accidents. He next conquered Usbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghistan Tartars, whose country he found to be inaccessible. He beat the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to strike terror into all his subjects by the most cruel executions. His conduct became so intolerable, that it was thought his brain was touched; and he was assassinated in his own tent, partly in self defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, started up; but the fortunate candidate was Kerim Khan, who was crowned at Tauris in 1763. He died in 1779, in the 80th year of his age, greatly beloved and lamented by his subjects.

From the death of Kerim Khan to the present time, a variety of competitors have been desirous of filling the throne of Persia. Of these we shall only mention the two principal. Akau Mahomet Khan keeps possession of the provinces of Mazanderan and Ghilan, as well as the cities of Ispahan, Hamadan, and Tauris, where he is acknowledged as sovereign. Jaafar Khan has possession of the city of Shirauz, and the provinces of Beaboon and Shuster: He also receives an annual present from the province of Carmania, and another from the city of Yezd; Abu Shehr and Lar also send him tribute. The southern provinces are in general more fruitful than those to the northward, they not having been so frequently the scenes of action during the late revolutions.

Jaafar Khan is a middle-aged man, very corpulent, and has a cast in his right eye: In the places where he is acknowledged, he is well

he also cast from a rock his two uncles, who had before been blinded by order of Shah Abbas. The instances of his cruelty were innumerable. He buried alive forty-four women of his Haram, though, when he was not hunting, or over his cups, he used to pass his time with them. Seffie, or Suliman, who ascended the throne of Persia in 1666, and was a brutal tyrant when he was intoxicated either with wine or anger, often ordered the hands, feet, ears, and noses of those near him to be cut off, their eyes to be plucked out, or their lives to be sacrificed, as if it were his pastime.

beloved and respected. He is very mild in his disposition, and just. In Shirauz he keeps up a most excellent police, and good government. He is very kind and obliging to strangers in general, and to the English in particular. Of the two competitors who at present contend for the government of Persia, he is the most likely, in case of success against his opponent, to restore the country to a happy and reputable state; but it will require a long space of time to recover it from the calamities into which the different revolutions have brought it: A country, if an oriental metaphor may be allowed, once blooming as the garden of Eden, fair and flourishing to the eye; now, sad reverse! despoiled and leafless by the cruel ravages of war, and desolating contention.

The forces of the two competitors are nearly equal, consisting of about twenty thousand men, chiefly horse. This was the situation of the country in 1788, according to the report of the last advices, when the fate of Persia was still undecided.

ARABIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 1430 Breadth 1200	between	35° and 60° east longitude. 12° and 30° north latitude.	700,000

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Turkey on the north; by the gulfs of Persia or Bassora, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, south; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, N. W.	—— ——	Suez, E. lon. 33° 27′, N. lat. 29° 50′.
2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle.	Haggiaz or Mecca	Mecca, E. lon. 43° 30′, N. lat. 21° 20′.
	Tehama	Siden—Medina Dhafar
3. Arabia Felix, S. E.	Mocha	Mocha, E. lon. 44° 4′, N. lat. 13° 45′.
		Sibit
	Hadramut	Hadramut
	Casseen	Casseen
	Segur	Segur
	Oman or Muscat	Muscat
	Jamama	Jamama
	Bahara	Elcalf.

Name.] It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the desert.

Mountains.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, east of the Red Sea, and those called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

Rivers, Seas, Gulfs and Capes.] There are few fountains, springs, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Musledon.

Climate, Air, Soil and Produce.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropick of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix, the air is excessively dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot, poisonous winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The most intolerable burning wind is called *Samiel.* The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains, by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, says Dr. Shaw, are no pastures cothed with flocks, nor vallies standing thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive-yards; but the whole is a lonesome desolate wilderness, no otherwise diversified than by plains covered with sand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day time. But the southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea-coast, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a small quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, which last are found scarcely any where in such perfection as here and in Persia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

A sandy belt, called Tehama, surrounds the peninsula of Arabia, beginning at Suez, and extending to the mouth of the Euphrates. Its breadth varies, but for the greater part it is two days' journey from the Red Sea to the rise of the hills. This plain of desolation bears every mark of having once been the bed of the sea. The sea is still retiring. Strata of salt, and in some places hills of salt, are scattered over these regions. [*Crutwell.*]

Animals.] The most useful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence for travelling the dry and parched deserts of this country, for they are so formed, that they can throw up the liquor from their stomach into their throat,

by which means they can travel six or eight days without water. The camels usually carry 800lb. weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to rest, and in due time rise with their load. The dromedary is a small camel, that will travel many miles a day. It is an observation among the Arabs, that, wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will smell it at a distance, and set up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horses are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of those in England. They are only fit for the saddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their swiftness and high mettle. The finest breed is in the kingdom of Sunnaa, in which Mocha is situated.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs and Dress.] The Arabians, like most of the nations of Asia, are of a middle stature, thin, and of a swarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, and are said to be in general a brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire arms, good marksmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds, as they have ever done since they became a nation.

The Arabians in general are such thieves, that travellers and pilgrims, who are led thither from all nations through motives of devotion or curiosity, are struck with terror on their approaches towards the deserts. Those robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, and assault and plunder the caravans: and we are told, that so late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 persons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army. Literally true to this day is the prophecy, that their hand should be against every man, and every man's hand against them: still they dwell in the presence of their brethren, and remain an independent people; having never been subdued.

The population is original and indigenous, of the same race with the Assyrians. By all accounts, sacred and profane, the Assyrians were the most ancient, civilized people. When modern Philosophists shall lay aside their prejudices, they will see no superior pretension in China, and less in Hindostan. The merchants of Tyre had explored the shores of Britain, before the Chinese had discovered Japan; an argument that they are equally superior in the other arts and sciences. Till China can produce one book as ancient as the Hebrew scriptures her extravagant claims to antiquity must never gain belief with rational men. The Arabians are distinguished for their sagacity and valour. They have never been subdued by any invader. They alone have preserved the sacred flame of freedom which their progenitors kindled in their inaccessible mountains. In comparatively modern times they have given religion and law to half of Asia and Africa. At Alexandria and Bagdad they cultivated the sciences, while Europe was obscured by a cloud of barbarism.

[*Pinkerton.*]

It is with truth said that polygamy is unnatural and detrimental to the population of a country, This has been founded upon a calculation from the bills of mortality of particular countries, by which it appears that the number of the sexes is equal. In England the proportion is found to be, as thirteen to twelve ; nature having provided a greater proportion of men, in order to make up for the havock occasioned by war, murder, drunkenness, and all species of violence to which women are not so subject as men.

In Yemen murder is sometimes punished by death, but more frequently, as among the Ishmaelites, it is left to be avenged by the friends. The common salutation is *Salam Alikam*, "Peace be with you." The same phrase was in use thousands of years since. In pronouncing the words, the hand is raised to the heart. Women are submissive to their husbands ; not eating till they have served them at table.

The dress of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, tied about them with a white sash or girdle ; and some of them have a vest of furs or sheep-skins over it ; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings ; and have a cap or turban on their heads. Many of them go almost naked ; but, as in the eastern countries, the women are so wrapped up, that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh except hogs ; and prefer the flesh of camels, as we prefer venison, to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and like them refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee and tea, water, and sherbet made of oranges, water and sugar, is their usual drink : They have no strong liquors.

The Arabs are distinguished for their hospitality. A prince will frequently dine in the street, and invite all who pass to partake with him. It is a general custom with those who live in plenty not to preserve the fragments of one day or meal for another, but to give them to the poor. Weary and faint on a journey, the wild Arab does not sit down to eat his scanty morsel till he has ascended the highest ground near him, and with a loud voice three times invited all his brethren to come and partake with him. But the host, who has hospitably entertained you in his house, very probably may pursue, rob and murder you in the desert.

Religion.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mahomet their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are still Pagans, but the people in general profess Mahometanism. In the ancient idolatry of the Arabs, human sacrifices bore a part, as well as among the Syrians and Carthagenians. [*Pinkerton.*]

Learning and Language.] Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language used in the three Arabias is the Arabesk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabick, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the East accounted the richest, most energetick, and copious language in the world, is

taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin are among Europeans, and used by Mahometans in their worship; for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other: They look upon it to have been the language of Paradise, and think no man can be master of it without a miracle, as consisting of several millions of words. The books which treat of it say, they have no fewer than a thousand terms to express the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of *lion*.

In the temple of Mecca, or suspended on its walls and gates, are seven Arabian poems, called the *Moalakat*, a fine specimen of oriental poetry, as to the dramatical pastoral, which have been lately translated into the English by Sir William Jones. The following stanzas of one of the poems are transcribed, as they serve to gratify the curiosity, and also display a lively and entertaining view of the Arabian customs and modes of living.

1. "Desolate are the mansions of the fair, the stations in Minia, where they rested, and those where they fixed their abodes; wild are the hills of Goul, and deserted is the summit of Rijaam.
2. The canals of Rayann are destroyed; the remains of them are laid bare, and smoothed by the floods, like characters engraved on the solid rocks.
3. Dear ruins! many a year has been closed, many a month, holy and unhallowed, has elapsed since I exchanged tender vows with the fair inhabitants.
4. The rainy constellations of spring have made their hills green and luxuriant. The drops from the thunder clouds have drenched them with profuse as well as gentle showers:
5. Showers from every nightly cloud, from every cloud veiling the horizon at day break, and from every evening cloud, responsive with hoarse murmurs.
6. Here the wild eringo plants raise their heads; here the antelopes bring forth their young by the sides of the valley; and here the ostriches drop their eggs.
7. The large eyed wild cows lie suckling their young a few days old; their young, who will soon become a herd on the plain.
8. The torrents have cleared the rubbish, and disclosed the traces of habitations, as the reeds of a writer restore effaced letters in a book.
9. Or as the black dust, sprinkled over the varied marks on a fair hand, brings to view with a brighter tint, the blue stains of woad.
10. I stood asking news of the ruins concerning their lovely habitants; but what avail my questions to dreary rocks, who answer them only by their echo?
11. In the plains, which now are naked, a populous city once stood: but they decamped at early dawn, and nothing of them remains but the canals which encircled their tents, and the Thumaam plants, with which they were repaired.
12. How were thy tender affections raised, when the damsels of the tribe departed; when they hid themselves in carriages of

cotton, like antelopes in their lair ; and the tents, as they were struck, gave a piercing sound !

13. They were concealed in vehicles, whose sides were well covered with awnings and carpets, with fine spun curtains, and pictured veils.

14. A company of maidens where seated in them, with black eyes and graceful motions, like the wild heifers of Tudah, or the roes of Wegera, tenderly gazing on their young.

15. They hastened their camels, till the sultry vapour gradually stole them from thy sight ; and they seemed to pass through a vale wild with tamarisks, and rough with large stones, like the valley of *Beisha.*"

Face of the Country, Chief Cities, Curiosities and Arts.] Arabia, in its central parts, presents a vast desert of barren sand, with a few oases or islands of vegetation, as in Africa. The most flourishing provinces are on the sea shore, where there are sufficient rains to support vegetation. The want of rivers, brooks and springs forbid this country to be fertile or highly cultivated. What is called the desert of Sinai, is a beautiful plain nearly nine miles long, and above three in breadth ; it lies open to the north-east, but to the southward is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai ; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain as to divide it into two, each so capacious as to be sufficient to receive the whole camp of the Israelites.

From Mount Sinai, may be seen Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning bush. On those mountains, are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jerusalem, pretend to shew the very spot where every miracle or transaction recorded in scripture happened.

Sinai is a lofty, steep mountain, ascended by 14,000 stone steps. On the summit is a Christian Church, and a Turkish Mosque. In a vale not far remote stands the solitary rock, now called by the Arabs, *the stone of Moses ;* by the Greeks, *the stone of the fountains*, which Moses struck and the water flowed. It is twelve feet high, eight or ten broad. It is a granite marble, of brick colour. There remain on it to this day, the lively impressions of the miracle. Still we see the place whence the water gushed. Twelve different openings, as so many mouths, proclaim the genuineness of scripture history. *Exod.* xvii. 1.

In the wilderness of Paran is also the rock mentioned *Numb.* xx. 2. which Moses struck twice, before the water flowed, thirty-eight years distant from the other transaction. This is a large rock, and like the other shows various openings from top to bottom, whence the water burst when smitten by the rod of Moses. [*Journal to Sinai.*]

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocha, Aden, Muschat, Suez, and Juddah or Jidda. Mocha is well built, the houses very lofty, and are with the walls and forts covered with a chinam or stucco that gives a dazzling whiteness to them. The harbour is semicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are several handsome mosques in the city. Suez, the Arsinoe of the ancients, is surrounded by the

desert, and but a desolate place. The ships are forced to anchor a league from the town, to which the leading channel has only about nine feet water. It stands at the extremity of the Red Sea, having the sea to the east, the harbour to the south, which is formed by an island east. No water can be procured within six or seven hours journey to the north-east. It lies in lat. 29° 50′, N. long. 30° 28′, E. [*Journal to Sinai.*] Juddah is the place of the greatest trade in the Red Sea, for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets and is interchanged, the former sending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe comes cloths, iron, furs and other articles by the way of Cairo. The port of Juddah, according to Mr. Bruce, is very extensive, consisting of numberless shoals, small islands, and sunken rocks, with deep channels between them. The harbour is very secure, but difficult of entrance; the pilots, however, are very skilful and accidents seldom happen.

We cannot omit here to mention the astonishing manner in which trade is carried on at this place. While Mr. Bruce was there in May, 1769, nine ships arrived from India, some of them worth perhaps 200,000l. One merchant, a Turk, living at Mecca, 30 hours' journey off, where no Christian dares go, while the whole continent is open to the Turk for escape, offers to purchase the cargoes of four out of nine of these ships himself. Another of the same cast, comes and says he will buy none, unless he has them all. The samples are shewn, and the cargoes of the whole nine ships are carried into the wildest part of Arabia, by men with whom one would not wish to trust himself alone in the field. This is not all; two India brokers come into the room to settle the price. One on the part of the India captain, the other on that of the buyer, the Turk. They are neither Mahometans nor Christians, but have credit with both. They sit down on a carpet, and take an India shawl, which they carry on their shoulders like a napkin, and spread it over their hands. They talk in the mean time, on different subjects; of the arrival of the ships from India, or of the news of the day, as if they were employed in no serious business whatever. There never was one instance of a dispute happening in these sales.

Matters are to be carried still further, and the money is to be paid. A private Moor, who has nothing to support him but his character, becomes responsible for the payment of these cargoes. This man delivers a number of hempen bags full of what is supposed to be money. He marks the contents upon the bag, and puts his seal upon the string that ties the mouth of it. This is received for what is marked upon it, without any one ever having opened the bag, and in India, it is current for the value marked upon it, as long as the bag lasts.

Juddah, being the most unwholesome part of Arabia, is at the same time in the most barren and desert situation. This, and many other inconveniences under which it labours, would probably have occasioned its being abandoned altogether, were it not for its vicinity to Mecca, and the great and sudden influx of wealth from the India trade, which once a year arrives in this part, but does not continue, passing on as through a turnpike to Mecca, whence it is dispersed all

over the East. Very little advantage, however, accrues to Juddah. The customs are all immediately sent to a needy sovereign and a hungry set of relations, dependants and ministers at Mecca. The gold is returned in bags and in boxes, and passes on as rapidly to the ships as the goods do to the market, and leaves as little profit behind. In the mean time provisions rise to a prodigious price, and this falls upon the townsmen, while all the profit of the traffick is in the hands of strangers, most of whom, after the market is over, retire to Yemen, and other neighbouring countries, which abound in every sort of provision. Though Jidda or Juddah is the country of their Prophet, yet no where are there so many unmarried women; and the permission of marrying four wives was allowed in this district in the first instance, and afterwards communicated to all the tribes. But Mahomet, in his permission of plurality of wives, seems constantly to have been on his guard against suffering that, which was intended for the welfare of his people, from operating in a different manner. He did not permit a man to marry two, three, nor four wives, unless he could maintain them; and the man who married them was obliged to shew before the Cadi, or some equivalent officer, that it was in his power to support them. From this great scarcity of provisions, which is the result of an extraordinary concourse of people to a place almost destitute of the necessaries of life, few inhabitants of Jidda can avail themselves of the privileges granted by Mahomet, as they cannot maintain more than one wife. From this cause arises the want of people here, and the large number of unmarried women.

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deserve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a mosque so glorious, that it is generally counted the most magnificent of any temple in the Turkish dominions: Its lofty roof being raised in fashion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a delightful appearance, and are conspicuous at a great distance. The mosque has a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the finest gildings and tapestry. The number of pilgrims who yearly visit this place is almost incredible, every Mussulman being obliged by his religion to come hither once in his life-time, or send a deputy. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a stately mosque, supported by 400 pillars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the *Most Holy* by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomet, covered with a cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue, which the bashaw of Egypt, by order of the grand signior, renews every year. The camel which carries it derives a sort of sanctity from it, and is never to be used in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden crescent, so curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones, that it is esteemed a master-piece of great value. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers. Muscat or Maskat is a considerable town, much visited by Europeans.

Government.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are styled xeriss and imans, both of them including offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the califs of the Saracens, the successors of Mahomet. These monarchs appear to be absolute, both in spirituals and temporals; the succession is hereditary, and they have no other laws than those found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. It is certain they receive large gratuities from the grand signior, for protecting the pilgrims that pass through their country from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no standing regular militia, but their kings command both the persons and the purses of their subjects, as the necessity of affairs requires.

History.] The Arabs are descended from Ishmael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they shall be invincible, "have their hands against every man, and every man's hands against theirs." They are at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. According to prophecy they still "dwell in the presence of their brethren." Branches of the same family now settle together, and form a village. They combine their force, and from their fraternal union are invincible. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion, began with one man, whose character forms a very singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia, which, for the luxuriancy of its soil, and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been esteemed the loveliest and sweetest region of the world, and is distinguished by the epithet of Happy.

Mahomet was born in the sixth century, anno 569, in the reign of Justinian II. emperor of Constantinople. Though descended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, Mahomet was endowed with a subtile genius, like those of the same country, and possessed a degree of enterprize and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow, Cadiga, and by her means came to be possessed of great wealth, and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the East, he had observed the vast variety of sects in religion, whose hatred against each other was strong and inveterate, while at the same time there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully laid hold of these particulars, by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches and pleasure, passions universal among them, he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been established. In this design he was assisted by a Sergian monk, whose libertine disposition had made him forsake his cloister and profession, and engage in the service of Cadiga, with whom he

remained as a domestick when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified by his great learning, for supplying the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, must have obstructed the execution of his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they proposed to establish should have a divine sanction; and for this purpose Mahomet turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often subject to fits of the epilepsy, a disease which those whom it afflicts are desirous to conceal; Mahomet gave out therefore that these fits were trances, into which he was miraculously thrown by God Almighty, during which he was instructed in his will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by leading a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers and the enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet, sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastick, was enlarged by travelling into distant nations, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that the system he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the eastern countries were at this time much addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jesus Christ was co-equal with God the Father, as is declared in the Athanasian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into those corners of the world from the persecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of these countries were Pagans. These, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and, like men whose religious principle is weak, had given themselves over to pleasure and sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, to be the better able to indulge in the gratifications of sense, which, together with the doctrine of predestination, composed the sole principles of their religion and philosophy. Mahomet's system was exactly suited to these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most eminent; but the endeavours of these had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now sent his last and greatest prophet, with a commission more ample than what Moses or Christ had been entrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end to establish a kingdom upon earth which should propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had designed utter ruin and destruction to those who should refuse to submit to him; but to his faithful followers, he had given the spoils and possessions of all the

earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments, especially those of love; that the pleasures of such as died in propagating the faith, would be peculiarly intense, and vastly transcend those of the rest. These, together with the prohibition of drinking strong liquors, (a restraint not very severe in warm climates) and the doctrine of predestination, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. They were no sooner published than a vast number of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the priest we formerly mentioned, and compose a book called the *Koran*, or Alkoran, by way of eminence, as we say the Bible, which means the Book. The person of Mahomet, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; so that the greater part of them were sufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a design to cut him off; but Mahomet, getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Tahmachi, or the city of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to custom, greatest at a distance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622d year of Christ, the fifty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time, and the era is called in Arabick, Hegira, "the Flight."

Mahomet, by theassistance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his insinuation and address daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at least to an acquiescence in his doctrines. The speedy propagation of his system among the Arabians, was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and the East, who were previously disposed to it. Arians, Jews and Gentiles, all forsook their ancient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt and Persia; and Mahomet, from a deceitful hypocrite, became the most powerful monarch in his time. He was proclaimed king at Medina in the year 627; and after subduing part of Arabia and Syria, he died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed divine among their subjects. These were the caliphs of Persia and of Egypt, under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of these turned their arms to the East, and made conquests of many countries.

The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and under the name of Saracens or Moors (which they obtained because they entered Europe from Mauritania in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced most of Spain, France, Italy, and the islands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the successors of that impostor spread their religion and conquests over the greatest part of Asia, Africa and Europe; and they still give law to a very considerable part of mankind.

See "The History of the Turkish or Ottoman Empire, from its foundation in 1300, to the peace of Belgrade in 1740; to which is prefixed a Historical Discourse on Mahomet and his successors;" translated from the French of Mignot, by A. Hawkins, Esq. published 1787.

JAPAN.

THE Japan Islands, Japan or Nipham, Bongo, Tonsa, and Dezima, form together what has been called the empire of Japan, and are governed by a most despotick prince, who is sometimes called emperor and sometimes king. They are situated about 150 miles east of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41st degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of east longitude. The chief town is Jeddo, in the 141st degree of east longitude, and the 36th of north latitude.

The soil and productions of the country are pretty much the same with those of China; and the inhabitants are famous for their lacker ware, known by the name of Japan. The islands themselves are very inaccessible, through their high rocks and tempestuous seas: they are subject to earthquakes, and have some volcanoes. The Dutch expelled the Portuguese from this gainful trade. The Japanese are idolaters, and so irreconcileable to Christianity, that it is commonly said, the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themselves to be no Christians, and humour the Japanese in the most absurd superstitions. They believe in a supreme God, who is above the praises and prayers of men, whence they adore a variety of subordinate deities as mediators. The idea of a Mediator has been an essential part of almost every religion of the world; a strong presumption in favour of Christianity. They believe that good men are immediately happy, that the wicked wander in the air till they have atoned for their sins. They have temples and stated holy days. The first day of the year, and three or four other grand festivals, with the first day of every month, are dedicated to publick worship. In the centre of the temple they have a large mirror, to remind the worshippers, that as their personal blemishes are visible in the glass, so their secret sins are visible to God. They have such a detestation of christianity, that annually they trample the cross and its other symbols under their feet. People of distinction are burned, the common people are buried. Notwithstanding all this compliance, the natives are very shy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagasacci, in the island of Dezima, is the only place where they are suffered to trade. The complexions of the Japanese are in general yellowish, although some few, chiefly women, are almost white. Their narrow eyes, and high eye-brows, are like those of the Chinese and Tartars; and their noses are short and thick. Their hair is universally black; and such a sameness of fashion reigns throughout this whole empire, that the head-dress is the same from the emperor to the peasant. The fashion of their clothes has also remained the same from very high antiquity. They consist of one or more loose gowns, tied about the middle with a sash. People of rank have them made of silk, but the lower class of cotton stuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or silver flowers woven into the stuff.

Their houses are built with upright posts, crossed and wattled with bamboo, plastered both without and within, and white-washed. They generally have two stories; but the uppermost is low, and seldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. They have no furniture in their rooms; neither tables, chairs, stools, benches, cupboards, or even beds. Their custom is to sit down on their heels upon the mats, which are always soft and clean. Their food is served up to them on a low board, raised buta few inches from the floor, and one dish only at a time. They have mirrors, but never fix them up in their houses as ornamental furniture; they are made of a compound metal, and used only at their toilets. Notwithstanding the severity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houses from November to March, they have neither fire-places nor stoves; instead of these they use large copper pots standing upon legs. These are lined on the inside with loam, on which ashes are laid to some depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which seems to be prepared in some manner which renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The first compliment, offered to a stranger in their houses, is a dish of tea and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are used by both sexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inseparable companions. The whole nation are naturally cleanly; Every house, whether publick or private, has a bath, of which constant and daily use is made by the whole family. Obedience to parents, and respect to superiors, are the characteristicks of this nation. Their salutations and conversations, between equals, abound also with civility and politeness: To this children are early accustomed by the example of their parents.

No people in the world are more careful to educate their children in the love of honesty, faithfulness and generosity. They likewise breed them to modesty, chastity, fidelity, sincerity, and abhorrence of lying and liars. The women are celebrated for their extraordinary modesty and bashfulness. It is to them that the education of children is committed. In this province they exceed the teachers of all other nations. They never make use of punishments, or even of threats; but strive to gain them by praise, rewards, and other fair incentives. Parents, and other relations, are made answerable for the crimes of those, whom they ought to have instructed in a better manner.

[*Varenius.*]

Their penal laws are very severe; though punishments are seldom inflicted. And perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes against society are committed. Commerce and manufactures flourish here, though, as these people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which they are in Europe. Agriculture is so well understood, that the whole country, even to the tops of the hills, is cultivated. They trade with no foreigners but the Dutch and Chinese, and in both cases with companies of privileged merchants. Besides the sugars, spices, and manufactured goods, which the Dutch send to Japan, they carry thither annually upwards of 200,000 deer skins, and more than 100,000 hides, the greatest part of which they get from Siam, where

they pay for them in money. The merchandize they export from these islands, both for Bengal and Europe, consists in 9000 chests of copper, each weighing 120 pounds, and from 25 to 30,000 weight of camphor. Their profits on imports and exports are valued at 40 or 45 per cent. As the Dutch company do not pay duty in Japan, either on their exports or imports, they send an annual present to the emperor, consisting of cloth, chintz, succotas, cottons, stuffs and trinkets.

TCHOKA

Is a large island on the coast of Tartary, separated from the main by a channel 6 fathoms deep, which forms a communication between the sea of Japan and Okhotsk. It was discovered by the celebrated Peyrouse, and extends from about lat. 46 to 54 N. The island has a rich soil, is covered with wood, level on the shores, mountainous towards the centre. The sea abounds with fish, the rivers and brooks are crowded with salmon. The inhabitants are ingenious and friendly; little more than five feet high, with large heads, broad faces, animated and agreeable countenances. Like the Chinese, they salute by kneeling and prostration. What is their exact form of government has not been discovered; their old men are greatly respected. Little is known of their religion. The women are more delicately formed than the men, their hair is long and flowing; but their dress differs but little. In the S. part of the island the beards of the men reach to their breast; their arms, neck, and back are covered with hair. Some of the inhabitants tattoo their upper lip, and give it a blue colour; wearing silver rings, and ornaments of glass. They dress themselves in the skins of animals, or cloth, which they spin and weave from hair or willow bark. Their huts are strongly framed, the sides covered with bark, the roof with thatch. They have two meals in a day, one at noon, the other in the evening. They live entirely on the fruits and vegetables, which grow spontaneously, and what they take in fishing and hunting. Strawberries, gooseberies, and rasberries, they have in plenty. Dogs are their only domestick animal. They have pipes, steel for striking fire, and little ornaments of copper, of Japanese or Chinese manufacture. They are very intelligent honest people. [*Peyrouse.*]

AFRICA
NORTH
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
SOUTH
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
INDIAN
OCEAN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
SAHARA or GREAT DESERT
DESERT
ARABIA
ABYSSINIA
NUBIA
NEGROES
HOTTENTOTS
GULF OF GUINEA
Equinoctial Line
Tropic of Cancer
Tropic of Capricorn
Cape of Good Hope
Cape Verd
Madeira
Canary Isles
Azores
Ascension
St Helena
Cape Sandy
Cape Formosa
Cape Lopez
Cape Negro
Cape Blanco
Cape Bojador
Cape Nun
Cape Spartel
Gibraltar
Malta
Cyprus
Rhodes
Candia
Tripoli
Algiers
Tunis
Morocco
Fez
Mequinez
Tafilet
Tombuctoo
Jenne
Houssa
Kashna
Kano
Zegzeg
Agadez
Bornou
Kaouar
Darfour
Sennaar
Gingiro
Abyssinia
Mecca
Medina
Jidda
Aden
Babelmandel Str
Socotra
Mocha
Gaza
Damascus
Jerusalem
Palmyra
Aleppo
Suez
Cairo
Nile R
Red Sea
Persian Gulf
Arabian Gulf
Mozambique
Zanzibar
Melinda
Quiloa
Mombaza
Madagascar
Comoro Isles
Natal
Algoa B
Cape Agulhas
Cape Lagullas
Cape Town
Table B
Saldanha B
Walvich B
Angra Pequena
Benguela
Angola
Congo
Loango
Gabon
Calbongas
Benin
Dahomy
Ashantee
Jaloffs
Foulahs
Bambarra
Kasna
Kong
Biafra
Bight of Biafra
Princes I
St Thomas
Fernando Po
Annobon
St Helena
Ascension
Madeira
Canary Isles
Cape Verd Isles
St Vincent
St Nicholas
St Jago
St Mary
St Antony
Fogo
Bonavista
Sal
Boa Vista
Maio
Porto Santo
Lake Maravi
Lake Zembre
Lake Dambea
Lake Zaire
Lake Zaflan
Lake Bahr el Abiad
Lake Dembea
Lake Tzana
Lake Aoussa
Lake Tchad
Lake Bahr el Ghazal
Lake Maeleh
Lake Dibbie
Lake Wangara
Lake Bahr el Ahmar
Lake Aoussa

AFRICA.

AFRICA, the third grand division, of the globe, is generally represented as bearing some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern part of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean, and the point or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, about 60 miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez, and its utmost length from north to south, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37° north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34° 7′ south latitude, is 4,300 miles ; and the broadest part from Cape Verd, in 17° 20, to Cape Gurdafui, near the straits of Babelmandeb, in 51° 20′, east longitude, is 3,500 miles from east to west. Or, according to Pinkerton, Africa is 4,200 geographical miles in length, and 4140 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, which separates it from Europe ; on the east by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divides it from Asia ; on the south by the Southern Ocean ; and on the west by the great Atlantick Ocean, which separates it from America. As the equator divides this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far greater part of it is within the tropicks, the heat is in many places almost insupportable to a European ; it being there increased by the rays of the sun from vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, are generally fertile; and most parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as Europe or Asia. From what has been said, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, snow seldom falls in the plains; and it is generally never found but on the tops of the highest mountains. The natives, in these scorching regions, would as soon expect that marble should melt, and flow in liquid streams, as that water, by freezing, should lose its fluidity, be arrested by the cold, and, ceasing to flow, become like the solid rock.

The rivers in this part of the globe are not to be compared with many in the other quarters. The most considerable are the *Niger*, *Senegal*, *Gambia*, and *Nile*. The *Niger*, according to the latest accounts, rises near Sankaria, long. 6° 20′ west, lat. 11° north, thence running northerly to Kaniaba, thence north-east to Bammako, thence generally a north-east course to Sego and Jennu, thence, after forming the island Jinbala, 90 or 100 miles in length, it leaves Tombuctoo to the north, passes east by Houssa, and is lost in the low lands and lakes of Ghana and Wangara ; or, if we may credit accounts said to be received from Mr. Horneman, it then continues its course easterly to the N. of the Mountains of the Moon ; thence north-easterly till it falls in with the Bahr el Arrek, which has been considered the Nile from

Abyssinia, thence passing Nubia, Sennaar and Dongala, it divides Egypt into two parts, pursuing a northerly course, and falls into the Mediterranean by several mouths. If this account be correct, it is the longest river in the world. It annually overflows its banks, fertilizing the country. The *Senegal* has its source about 100 miles west from that of the Niger; running north till it unites with the Kokoro; its general course thence is north-westerly, till it reaches Faribe; thence westerly to Sevinpale; thence it pursues a southerly course till it enters the Atlantick, lat. 15° 50′ north. The head of the *Gambia* is more than 100 miles west from that of the Senegal, thence it runs north-west to the falls above Baraconda; thence, with many windings, its general course is nearly west, till it enters the ocean, lat. 13° 30′ north. The *Nile* divides Egypt into two parts and discharges itself into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious course from its source in Abyssinia.

The most considerable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the Western Ocean, (to which it gives the name of Atlantick ocean) as far as Egypt, and had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of astronomy, who used to observe the stars from its summit; on which account the poets represent him as bearing the heavens on his shoulders. The Mountains of the Moon, extending themselves between Abyssinia and Monomopata, and are still higher than those of Atlas. Those of Sierra Leona, or mountains of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. These were styled by the ancients the mountains of God, on account of their being subject to thunder and lightning. The peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their first meridian, is about two miles high, in the form of a sugar loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name near the coast. The most noted capes or promontories in this country are Cape Verd, so called because the land is always covered with green trees and mossy grounds. It is the most westerly point of the continent of Africa. The Cape of Good Hope, so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it in 1498, and discovered the passage to Asia. It is the south extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots, at present in the possession of the Dutch, and the general rendezvous of ships of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one strait in Africa, which is called Babelmandeb, and is the communication between the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean.

The situation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, standing, as it were, in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia and America, than any of the other quarters has with the rest. That it abounds with gold, we have have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English and the French, who have settlements on the coast of Africa, but that of the most authentick historians. It is however the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles of sea coast, with noble, large, deep rivers, penetrating into the very centre of the country, it should have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; that it should be inhabited by an innumerable

people, ignorant of commerce and of each other. At the mouths of these rivers are the most excellent harbours, deep, safe, calm and sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandize. In short, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable under proper improvements, of producing so many things delightful, as well as convenient within itself, seems to be almost entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unsolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but also by the civilized Europeans, who are settled in it, particularly the Portuguese.

The state of society as well as history proves they are the descendants of Ham. They themselves constitute the principal article of exportation. Human creatures are the grand staple of Africa. On every quarter of the world they are in the lowest state of slavery: Or, according to scripture language, they are "the servants of servants." Such is the truth of divine predictions.

Africa once contained several kingdoms and states, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful state of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itself, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republick of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the assistance of the Mauritanians, subdued Carthage, and by degrees, all the neighbouring kingdoms and states. After this, the natives, constantly plundered, and consequently impoverished, by the governours sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was overrun by the Vandals, who contributed still more to the destruction of arts and sciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the seventh century. These were succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahometan religion, whose professors carried desolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mahometans and Christians. The first have been considered the most numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the tropick of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, being generally black. But recent discoveries lead us to suppose the Mahometans are more numerous, who are of a tawny complexion, who possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coast, with many tribes in the interior. The people of Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites, and do not deserve the Christian name. There are also some Jews,

on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is possessed of.

There are scarcely any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, that agree in the modern divisions of Africa; and for this very reason, that scarcely any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country; and consequently, we must acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds and even the names of several of the inland nations, which may be still reckoned among the unknown and undiscovered parts of the world; but, according to the best accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following

TABLE.

	Nations.	Leng.	Brdth.	Chief Cities.	Distance and bearing from London.	Religion.
Barbary.	Morocco Tafilet, &c.	500	480	Fez	1080 S.	Mahom.
	Algiers	480	100	Algiers	920 S.	Mahom.
	Tunis	220	170	Tunis	990 S.E.	Mahom.
	Tripoli	700	240	Tripoli	1260 S.E.	Mahom.
	Barca	400	300	Tolemeta	1440 S.E.	Mahom.
	Egypt	600	250	Grand Cairo	1920 S.E.	Mahom.
	Biledulgerid	2500	350	Dara	1565 S.	Pagans
	Zaara	3400	660	Tegessa	1800 S.	Pagans
	Negroland	2200	840	Madinga	2500 S.	Pagans
	Guinea	1800	360	Benin	2700 S.	Pagans
Up. Ethiop.	Nubia	940	600	Nubia	2418 S.	Ma.&Pa.
	Abyssinia	900	800	Gondar	2880 S.E.	Christns.
	Abex	540	130	Doncala	3580 S.E.	Ch.&Pa.

The middle parts, called the Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 sq. miles.

Lower Guinea.	Loango	410	300	Loango	3300 S.	Ch.&Pa.
	Congo	540	420	St. Salvador	3480 S.	Ch.&Pa.
	Angola	360	250	Loando	3750 S.	Ch.&Pa.
	Benguela	430	180	Benguela	3900 S.	Pagans
	Mataman	450	240	No Towns	* * *	Pagans
	Ajan	900	300	Brava	3702 S.E.	Pagans
	Zanguebar	1400	350	Melinda or Mozamoique	4440 S.E.	Pagans
	Monomotapa	960	660	Monomotapa	4500 S.	Pagans
	Monemugi	900	660	Chicova	4260 S.	Pagans
	Sofala	480	300	Sofala	4600 S.E.	Pagans
	TerradeNat.	600	350	No Towns	* * *	Pagans
	Caffraria or Hottentot	708	660	C. of Good Hope	5200 S.	Pagans

The principal islands of Africa lie in the Indian Sea and Atlantick Ocean; of which the following belong to, or trade with, the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India.

Islands.	Sq. Miles.	Towns.	Trade with or belong to.
Babelmandeb, at the entrance of the Red Sea		Babelmandeb	All Nations
Socotra in the Indian Ocean	3,600	Calausia	Ditto
The Comora Isles ditto	1,000	Joanna	Ditto
Madagascar ditto	168,000	St. Austin	Ditto
Mauritius ditto	1,840	Mauritius	French
Bourbon ditto	2,100	Bourbon	Ditto
St. Helena, in the Atlantick Ocean		St. Helena	English
Ascension ditto			Uninha.
St. Matthew ditto			Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, Prince's island, Ferdinandopo ditto		St. Thomas, Anaboa	Portuguese
Cape Verde Islands, ditto	2,000	St. Domingo	Ditto
Goree ditto		Fort St. Michael	French
Canaries ditto		Palma, St. Christopher's	Spanish
Madeiras ditto	1,500	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portuguese
The Azores, or West. Isles, lie nearly at an equal distance from Euro. Afric. & Amer. ditto	2,000	Angra, St. Michael	Ditto

Having given the reader some idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their supposed dimensions, we shall now consider it under four grand divisions: First, Egypt; secondly, the states of Barbary, stretching along the coast of the Mediterranean, from Egypt on the east, to the Atlantick Ocean, west; thirdly, the Tribes of Africa north from the tropick of Cancer; and, lastly, that part of Africa, between the tropick of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope. The last of these divisions, indeed, is vastly greater than the other three; but the nations, which it contains, are so little known, and so barbarous, and, like all barbarous nations, so similar in most respects to one another, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

EGYPT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 600 Breadth 250	between	20° and 32° north latitude. 28° and 36° east longitude.	140,700*

Boundaries.] IT is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, north; by the Red Sea, east; by Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the south; and by the Desert of Barca and the unknown parts of Africa, west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Northern division contains	Lower Egypt	Grand Cairo, E. lon. 32°, N. lat. 30°. Bulac Alexandria Rosetto Damietta
Southern division contains	Upper Egypt	Sayd or Thebes Cossiar

Air and Diseases.] It is observed by M. Volney, that, during eight months of the year, (from March to November) the heat is almost insupportable by any European. "During the whole of this season, the air is inflamed, the sky sparkling, and the heat oppressive to all unaccustomed to it." The other months are more temperate. The southerly winds, which sometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called *poisonous* winds, or the *hot winds of the desert*. They are of such extreme heat and aridity that no animated body exposed to them can withstand their fatal influence. During the three days which it generally lasts, the streets are deserted; and woe to the traveller whom this wind surprizes remote from shelter. When it exceeds three days it is insupportable. The plague is an epidemick of this country; but instead of being contagious, it seems connected with a certain state of the air. It commences when the Nile begins to fall. It ceases when the Nile begins to rise, and is no more contagious than the yellow fever. Ophthalmia, dysentery, leprosy, dropsy, worms, hernica, &c. are diseases of Egypt.

Rivers.] The sources of the celebrated Nile were so much unknown to the ancients, that to search for them became a proverb, to express any ridiculous or impossible attempt. It rises in the territory of Gojam in Abyssinia, runs first northwardly, then, changing its course to north-east, falls into the great lake of Dembea, from whence, taking a circle south and westward, it again assumes a northerly direction, and being joined by two other large rivers, named the White

* According to the accurate calculations of M. Danville, Egypt does not contain more than 2,100 square leagues of habitable country.
Robertson's India, 4to. p. 184.

River and the Atbara, or Astaboras, it passes through the great desert of Nubia, enters Egypt at the south-west corner under the tropick of Cancer, and continues its course between two rows of mountains, fertilizing annually the low grounds between them; for the whole of Upper Egypt, as has already been mentioned, is a long and not very broad valley. The fountains are situated in 11 degrees north latitude, and almost 37 east longitude, and are three in number, rising out of the marshy ground at the foot of a mountain; the water is fine, and issues in considerable quantity. About two miles from its source, the stream becomes sufficiently large to turn a mill, but soon afterwards increases greatly, though even after a course of 60 miles it is fordable at certain seasons.

The natives, at the head of the Nile, pay divine honours to it. Thousands of cattle are offered to the Deity, supposed to reside at its source. The Lake Dembea is much the largest known in this country. Its greatest breadth is thirty-five miles; but it decreases greatly at each extremity, where it is not sometimes above ten miles broad. Its greatest length is forty-nine miles from north to south. In the dry months, from October to March, the lake shrinks greatly in size; but after all those rivers are full which are on every side of it, and fall into the lake, like radii drawn to a centre, then it swells, and extends itself into the plain country, and has of course a much larger surface.

The fertility of Egypt is well known to arise entirely from the annual overflowing of the Nile, and this is now equally well known to arise from the rains which fall periodically in Abyssinia. By these its waters are augmented, and begin to rise about the middle of June, and continue so to do until the middle of September, or the end of that month, the inundation taking up 100 days to arrive at its height. After that time it gradually decreases, and returns to its former channel, and so great is the influence of the sun, that even the vast quantity of water, which at all times runs in its channel, becomes corrupted and heated to such a degree, that it can scarce be used before the return of the flood. No notice, however, is taken of the rise of the river till the end of June, when it has usually swelled to 5 or 6 cubits beyond its former standard. This is publickly proclaimed through the streets of Cairo by a crier, and the daily increase continues to be proclaimed in like manner, till it has attained the height of 16 peeks, when great rejoicings are made, and the inhabitants cry out *Waffah Ullah*, "God has given us abundance." This commonly happens about the end of July, or before the 20th of August, and the sooner it rises to the height just mentioned, the greater hope they have of a plentiful harvest. Sometimes, however, they are disappointed, as was the case in 1705, when it did not rise to the requisite height, till the 19th of September; the consequence of which was, that a famine and pestilence ensued. After the inundation has risen to this height, the banks are cut to let it into the canals which water the country, and prepare it for the reception of the seed. The height to which it rises is different, depending entirely on the quantity of rain that falls in Abyssinia. If it does not attain to 16 peeks, the inhabitants are exempted from paying tribute. Eighteen cubits produce but an

indifferent crop; 22 a very good one; but if the inundation exceeds 24, a famine ensues, because the waters do not retire in time for sowing the corn.

The waters of the Nile are mightily extolled by the Egyptians, on account of their wholesome and light qualities, and likewise their pleasant taste; but these commendations are naturally to be expected from people who never saw any other water; though it is certain that by the great length of its course, the Nile must be very perfectly deprived of every saline and earthly taint, excepting only the mud which happens to be accidentally mixed with it. This indeed is so abundant in the dry season, that it cannot be used without filtration, and even then has a putrid quality, which, were it to continue long, would undoubtedly bring on dangerous diseases; but the waters of the inundation are always pure and wholesome.

Soil and Produce.] The fertility of the soil of Egypt has been celebrated in all ages, and if proper care was taken, there is not the least reason to doubt that it would now be the same as ever. In the dry months, indeed, the whole of this country is a dusty desert; though this is owing to nothing but the want of water; for the gardens which are artificially watered, afford a perpetual verdure. As some parts of the country lie too high to be reached by the inundation, artificial means are likewise used for watering the corn grounds, though by reason of the unartful methods made use of, very little produce can be expected. One of the ways in which the water is generally raised is by the *Sakiah*, or Persian wheel, turned by oxen, and having several earthen vessels fastened to it by a rope, which empty themselves, as the wheel turns round, into a cistern at top. In places where the banks of the river are high, they sometimes make basons in the side of them, near which they fix an upright pole, on the top of which is another moving upon an axle. At one end of the cross pole hangs a great stone and at the other a leathern bucket; and the latter being pulled down by two men, is raised by the weight of the stone, and emptied into a proper cistern. From these cisterns the water is conveyed to the gardens, or plantations, and allowed to run in several little trenches, from whence it is conducted all round the beds in rills which the gardener easily stops by raising the earth with his foot, and diverts the current another way.

Throughout all Egypt the soil is remarkably impregnated with that species of salt called Mineral Alkali, mingled with some common salt, and this may be supposed a reason of the extraordinary quickness of vegetation in this country, which is so remarkable, that a certain species of gourd, named *Kara*, will send out in one night a shoot four inches in length; but for the same reason, in all probability it is, that foreign plants will not thrive here. Thus the European merchants, residing at Cairo, are obliged annually to send to Malta for the seeds of their garden stuffs; and always observe, that though they thrive very well, and bear seed the first year, yet if that seed is sown, the succeeding plants are too weak and slender. All kinds of grain are produced in plenty in Egypt, and the harvest months are March and April, during which the people reap three crops, viz. one of lettuces and cucumbers, (the latter being a principal article of food with them)

another of melons, and a third of corn. Dates, figs, plantains, sugar cane, olives, flax, cotton, indigo, &c. are produced here in great plenty, as well as palm trees, from which wine is made.

Animals.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said, that the inhabitants employ every day 20,000 oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, these people not being suffered by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat, called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The cameleon, a little animal something resembling a lizard, that changes colour as you stand to look upon him, is found here as well as in other countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America.

This country produces likewise great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its destroying serpents and pestiferous insects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

Population, Manners, Customs and Diversions.] As the population of Egypt is almost confined to the banks of the Nile; and as the rest of the country is inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we san say little upon this head with precision. It seems to be certain that Egypt is at present not near so populous as formerly; according to M. Volney, the number of inhabitants may amount at present to 2,300,000, of which Cairo contains about 250,000.

The descendants of the original Egyptians are represented as a slovenly, indolent people, and are here distinguished by the name of Coptes. In their complexions, they are rather sun-burnt than swarthy or black. Their ancestors were once Christians, and in general they still pretend to be of that religion. Mahometanism is the prevailing worship among the natives. The Arabs who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, are of a deep swarthy complexion, and they are represented by the best authorities, as retaining the patriarchal mode of tending their flocks, and many of them have no fixed place of abode. The Turks who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Coptes, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind, content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket like, round their body. The Jews

wear blue leather slippers, the other natives of their country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow.* The dress of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are silk, when they can afford it; and such of them as are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The Coptes are generally excellent accomptants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exercises and diversions are much the same as those made use of in Persia and other Asiatick dominions. All Egypt is overrun with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling slight-of-hand men

Human language is insufficient to describe the misery of an Egyptian village. The huts of the Irish are palaces compared with the Arab's stye. Each dwelling is entirely of mud; in form like an oven, 10 feet square, high enough in the middle for a man to stand upright. Here the whole family live, and eat, and sleep. [*Wilson.*]

Religion.] The bulk of the Mahometans are enthusiasts, and have among them their *santos*, or fellows, who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, and without any ceremony intrude into the best houses, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little, and it would be hard to say what species of Christianity is professed by the Christian Coptes, which are here numerous; but they profess themselves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who, by the dint of money, generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

Language.] The Coptick is the most ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabick, upon the commencement of the califate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. Arabick, or Arabesque, as it is called, is still the current language, but the Coptick and modern Greek continue to be spoken.

Learning and learned Men.] Though it is past dispute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet scarcely a vestige of it remains among their descendants. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan masters. Here it is proper to make one observation which is of general use. The califs or Saracens who subdued Egypt were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mahomet, made war from conscience and principle, upon all kinds of literature, excepting the Koran; and hence it was, that when they took possession of Alexandria, which contained the most magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuscripts were applied for some months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The califs of the second race were men of taste and learning, but of a peculiar strain. They bought up

* The poorer sort of inhabitants, live in a sort of tents, made of coarse black canvas. These tents are divided into three apartments; in the most retired of which, live the women; in the middle one, men and women live promiscuously: and in the outermost, are kept the cattle of the field, the cocks, hens, and goats. See Journal from Cairo to Sinai, p. 8.

all the manuscripts that survived the general conflagration, relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useless parts of philosophy; but they had no taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, painting or poetry; and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of califs, especially those who called themselves califs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed.

All the learning, therefore, possessed by the modern Egyptians, consists in arithmetical calculations for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of Arabesque or the Mahometan religion.

Curiosities and Antiquities.] Egypt abounds with these. Its pyramids have been often described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history itself, and their original uses are still unknown. The basis of the largest, covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if measured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet.* It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and, to appearance, the most useless, structures that ever were raised by the hands of men.

Among the greatest curiosities in this country, or perhaps in the whole world, we may reckon those people called *Psylli*, who have the faculty, either natural or acquired, of enchanting the most venomous serpents, so that they shall have no power to bite or hurt them, though they retain all their mischievous qualities with regard to others. Accounts of these have been transmitted by the Roman historians, but were looked upon as false, till confirmed by those of modern travellers. Mr. Hassalquist asserts, that he has seen one of these people handling the most venomous reptiles of this kind, as if they had been laces; nay, Mr. Bruce not only assures us of this fact, but that he has seen a fellow eat a living serpent, beginning at his tail, and proceeding all the way up to its head, without the creature offering to resent such a violent injury. In what manner this extraordinary enchantment is performed we know not; for those who practice it will not speak upon the subject.

The mummy pits, so called for their containing the mummies or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said, that some of the bodies thus embalmed, are perfect and distinct to this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth in Upper Egypt is a curiosity, thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock consisting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houses, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Mœris was dug by order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile,

* M. Volney says that a late mensuration assigns to each face of the Great Pyramid, six hundred feet; and its perpendicular height, four hundred and eighty feet.

and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches which still subsist, and are evidences of the utility as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo, is a continued scene of antiquities, of which the oldest are the most stupendous, but the more modern, the most beautiful. Cleopatra's Needle rises with majesty, 63 feet, on a base 7 feet square. Near this is another thrown down of equal magnitude; each is one piece of granite; they are covered with hieroglyphicks. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the shaft of which is one stone, being eighty-eight feet six inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedestal. On this column two English Officers have traced a Greek inscription, of which the following is a translation.

TO DIOCLESIANUS AUGUSTUS,

MOST ADORABLE EMPEROR,

THE TUTELAR DEITY OF ALEXANDRIA;

PONTIUS, PREFECT OF EGYPT,

CONSECRATES THIS. [*Wilson.*]

The Sphynx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman, hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.

The papyrus is one of the natural curiosities of Egypt, and served the ancients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it. The pith of it is a nourishing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and now practised in some parts of Europe. The construction of the oven is very curious.

Cities, Towns and Publick Edifices.] Even a slight review of these would amount to a large volume. In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are still entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as fresh and vivid as when first laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coast, was once the emporium of all the world, and by means of the Red Sea, furnished Europe and great part of Asia with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It stands 40 miles west from the Nile, and 120 north-west of Cairo. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-house erected on the opposite island of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. The mole, which was built to form a communication with the island of Pharos, is 1,000 yards in length, and though near two 2,000 years old, such were its excellent materials, as to resist in a great measure the violence of winds and waves ever since. All the parts of the city were magnif-

ficent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at present is a very ordinary seaport, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithstanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their mosques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within these ruins, preserve an inexpressible air of majesty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the ancient Memphis.

Rosetta, or Raschid, stands 25 miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and delightful prospects. It is likewise a place of great trade. The length of the city is two miles, but only half a mile broad. In the environs are many country houses belonging to Christian merchants, with fine gardens, producing the choicest fruits of the east. The Mahometan inhabitants, are here also particularly civil and polite. The city is built of a dingy, red brick ; but a great part of the town is now in ruins, the houses having been pulled down by the French army for fuel. The streets are two yards wide, filled with beggars of the most wretched aspect. The number of blind people is prodigious. Filth, musquetoes, vermin, and ugly women are principal objects in Rosetta. [*Wilson.*]

Cairo, now Masr, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air and narrow streets. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old castle, the works of which are said to be three miles in circumference. This castle is said to have been built by Saladine ; at the west end are the remains of very noble apartments, some of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in Mosaick work ; but these apartments are now only used for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually sent to Mecca. The well, called Joseph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, where they shew granaries, and many other works of publick utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vast antiquity ; but it is very questionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is shown in old Cairo ; but captain Norden suspects it is a Saracen work, nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itself. On the bank of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gize, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles west is Bulack, called the port of Cairo. The Christians of Cairo practise a holy cheat, during the Easter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead arise from their graves to which they return peaceably. The streets of Cairo are pestered with the jugglers and fortune tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor : The intense heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them a dancing all their lives after. Babylon, founded by Cambyses, stood on the site of this city. [*Wilson.*]

The other towns of note in Egypt are, Damietta, supposed to be the ancient Pelusium ; Sayd, on the west banks of the Nile, 200 miles south of Cairo, said to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes ; by the few who have visited it, it is reported to be the most important antique curiosity that is now extant. Cossiar is another place of note, on the west coast of the Red Sea. The general practice of strangers, who visit those places, is to hire a Janizary, whose authority commonly protects them from the insults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a small city, and gives name to the isthmus that joins Africa with Asia. The town is a miserable place ; a pool or rather puddle of rain water, full of insects, and of a bad smell, is its best water. A mile and a half distant is a well, and a few miles further is a second, the waters of both are bitter. A wall built by the French, to defend themselves from the Arabs, and two batteries towards the sea, and a two gun battery in ruins on a hill, are its only defence. The harbour is poor, a ship of twenty guns cannot approach within three miles of the town. The nearest good water is in the wells of Moses, twelve miles distant. Thence the inhabitants supply themselves in time of necessity. [*Wilson.*] The children of Israel are supposed to have marched near this city, when they left Egypt, in their way towards the Red Sea. Almost every object and village in this country presents some amazing piece of antiquity.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The Egyptians export prodigious quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts, calicoes, yellow-wax, sal-ammoniack, saffron, sugar, senna and cassia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, spices, calicoes and other merchandizes, which are landed at Suez, from whence they send them to Europe. Egypt receives from the inland regions of Africa ivory, gold dust, gums, and slaves. The situation of a slave in Egypt is very different from what they experience in the American States and colonies. The Egyptian slave is a favourite domestick, and often rises to dignity. The females attend the women of rank, and never feel the lash of a whip. [*Wilson.*]

Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt, but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews.

Constitution and Government.] A viceroy is sent to Egypt, from the Porte, under the title of the Bashaw of Cairo, and is one of the greatest officers of the Ottoman Empire. It is generally agreed, that the Bashaw is very careful how he provokes the little princes, or beys, who have parcelled out Egypt among themselves, and whom he governs chiefly by playing one against another. It has sometimes happened, that those bashaws have employed their arms against their masters ; and they are often displaced by the Porte, upon complaint from those petty princes. These circumstances may account for the reason why Egypt is not overloaded with taxes. Captain Norden and Dr. Pococke have given us the best, and indeed a very favourable account of those petty princes, who are called the Schechs or Sheiks of of the Bedonians, or wandering Arabs, and are generally too powerful to receive laws from the Turkish government.

Egypt is now divided into 24 provinces, each of which is governed by a Sangiac or Bey, so that the government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed by the bashaw, and the republican by the mamelukes or sangiacs. The bashaw is appointed by the grand signior as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the aristocratical part of the government of Egypt, consists of a divan, composed of these twenty-four sangiacs, beys or lords. The head of them is called the sheik bellet, who is chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the bashaw. Every one of the sangiacs is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts sovereign power; the major part of them reside at Cairo. If the grand signior's bashaw acts in opposition to the sense of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not suffer him to continue in his post, the Porte is obliged to send another. They have an authentick grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year Sultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamelukes. This government is of the most peculiar kind. No native sustains a principal office. The 24 beys or princes under the bashaw, are advanced from servitude to the administration of publick affairs; a superstitious notion possessing the Egyptians, that it is decreed by fate, that "captives shall reign, and the natives be subject to them." A remarkable prejudice this, to bring about the fulfilment of various prophecies of Ezekiel and others, some published thousands of years since—"That Egypt should be a *base* kingdom; that there should be no more a *prince* of the land of Egypt; that the land should be wasted by the hand of *strangers*; that Ham in his posterity should be a servant of servants." These things have for ages been verified; nor do the present contentions about Egypt forebode any melioration of their circumstances. [*Newton.*]

Dr. Wittman informs us, that it is necessary that every Mameluke should have been a slave. He says that the *descendants* of the Mamelukes can never enjoy elevated offices. This is surely "the basest" among the kingdoms.

Revenues.] From the nature of this divided government it must be difficult, if not impossible, to form a judgment of the amount of the revenue of this country; according to the most probable conjecture, it exceeds two millions annually at present.

Military Strength.] Authors are generally divided on this article. Captain Nordon tells us, that it is divided into two corps of janizaries and assafs, which are the chief; the former amounting to about six or eight thousand, and the latter to between three and four thousand. The other troops are of little account. After all, it does not appear, that the bashaw ever ventures to employ those troops against the Arab or Egyptian beys already mentioned, and who have separate armies of their own; so that, in fact, their dependence upon the Porte is little more than nominal, and amounts almost to feudal services.*

History.] See Rollin's Ancient History.

* According to M. Volney, the principal military strength of the country is now in the hands of the mamelukes, as scarce a vestige remains of the corps of janizaries, &c. which formerly kept Egypt in subjection.

STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head we shall rank the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez. 2. Algiers. 3. Tunis. 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea, on the south by Tafilet; and on the east by Segilmessa and the kingdom of Algiers, being 500 miles in length and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the east, and Morocco on the south, and is surrounded in other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Mount Atlas, and on the west by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to Dr. Shaw, who resided 12 years at Algiers in quality of chaplain to the British factory, and has corrected many errors of ancient and modern geographers respecting the states of Barbary, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and east; by the kingdom of Algiers on the west; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the south; being 220 miles in length from north to south, and 170 in breadth from east to west.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea; on the south by the country of the Beriberies; on the west by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the east by Egypt; extending about 1,100 miles along the sea-coast; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs; but the capital of Biledulgerid (the ancient Numidia) is Dara.

This being premised, I shall consider the Barbary States as forming (which they really do) a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal policy; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

Air and Season.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other states, except in the months of July and August.

Soil, vegetable and animal Productions by Sea and Land. These states, under the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there, was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines, which furnished all Italy and great part of the Roman empire with corn, wine and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their constitution,

yet they are still fertile, not only in the above mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen-gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and by the report of Europeans, who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for their great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines, and spirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces saltpetre, and great quantities of excellent salt; and lead and iron have been found in several places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the States of Barbary; but their deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones are occasionally imported into England. Camels and dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, a most serviceable creature, begotten by an ass upon a cow, are their beasts of burden. Their cows are but small, and barren of milk. Their sheep yield but indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. Besides vermin, says Dr. Shaw, (speaking of his travels through Barbary) the apprehensions we were under, in some parts at least of this country, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous spider, rarely failed to interrupt our repose, a refreshment so very grateful, and so highly necessary to a weary traveller. Partridges and quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the capsa-sparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and sweetness of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird, but it cannot live out of its own climate. The seas and bays of Barbary abound with the finest and most delicious fish of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe

Literature.] Learning is at a low ebb in Barbary. Some of their governours have been incapable of reading and writing. Yet in their cities and towns are several colleges and schools, in which the doctors of the law, and other literati are maintained. Some of these are supported by the publick; others live as mendicants; these are held in great veneration. The Koran is esteemed the perfection of human science. When a student has gone through it, he is superbly dressed, placed on horseback, and by his school-fellows conducted in triumph through the town: The same mode of honouring a person, which prevailed in the court of Ahasuerus. [*Walker. Pitts.*]

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs and Diversions. Morocco was certainly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 100,000 houses, whereas at present it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true that their king or emperor has 80,000 horse and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is said, to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2,000 Christian slaves; but no estimate can be formed as to the populousness of its territory. Some travellers report that it is inhabited by a friendly, hospitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from those of the metropolis.

Tunis is the most polished republick of all the Barbary States. The capital contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradesmen's shops, and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses. The Tunisines are indeed exceptions to the other states of Barbary; for even the most civilized of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their distinctions are well kept up, and proper respect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned professions. They cultivate friendship with the European states; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are said at present to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The Tunisine women are very handsome in their persons; and though the men are sun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate; nor are they less neat and elegant in their dress; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the same pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made use of when she is said (2 Kings, chap. ix. ver. 30) to have painted her face; the words of the original being, that she set off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen, in general are sober, orderly, and clean in their persons, their behaviour genteel and complaisant, and great regularity appears through all the streets and city.

Tripoli was once the richest, most populous and opulent, of all the states on the coast; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are said to amount to between 4 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much of a piece with those of the Egyptians. The subjects of the Barbary states, in general subsisting by piracy, are allowed to be bold, intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a prize at sea. They are, notwithstanding, far inferior to the Europeans, both in the construction and management of their vessels. They are, if we except the Tunisines, void of all arts and literature. The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's service, are beyond all description; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country are a hospitable, inoffensive people; and indeed, it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of their government, the more pure are their manners. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those who are of the Arabick descent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to lose, they are peaceable among themselves. The Moors are supposed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppressed by a handful of insolent, domineering Turks, the refuse of the streets of Constantinople.

The *Kabyles* are a people of Barbary, who, from their language and other circumstances, seem to be the only tribe of that region, who bear

any near relation to the ancient Africans. Retiring to the mountains, these clans have been less affected by innovations than those who submitted to invaders. Their huts are of hurdles, covered with mud, or of materials from adjacent ruins, or of square pieces of clay dried in the sun. The roofs are of mud or straw, supported by reeds or branches of trees. Their principal manufacture is of hykes, as they call woollen blankets, and webs of goat's hair for their tents. In this only women are employed. They use not the shuttle, but conduct the threads of the woof with their fingers. The hyke is six yards long and about 2 broad, a dress by day, a bed and covering by night for the Kabyle. It is a loose troublesome garment, continually requiring to be folded anew about the body. This shows the use of a *girdle* in any active employment, and the force of many scriptures, (alluding to such a custom) which require men to *gird* themselves. Their *burnoose* or cloak seems answerable to the *Roman Pallium*, being probably the same with our Saviour's, which was *woven without seam*; and the same as the clothes of the Israelites, in which they folded their *kneading troughs*. This is done by the Kabyles at the present day. Sometimes they wear frocks or tunicks under their hykes. Round those also they wear girdles. When they labour they often throw off their burnooses and hykes, wearing only their frocks. Dressed in this garment, Christ took a towel and girded himself, after he had laid aside his other garments, his Pallium and hyke. In this tunick, which the vulgate translates tunica, was Peter drest; this he girt unto him as he cast himself into the sea, John 21. The burnoose and hyke being the proper dress of the eastern nations, they were *said to be naked*, though they retained their tunick or frock. Their girdles were doubled, the edges sewed together, and used for a purse, hence *Zoone* in scripture is rendered *purse*. The women tinge their hair and their eye-lids with the powder of lead ore, as Jezebel did. The whole kitchen furniture of these Arabs is 2 or 3 wooden bowls, a pot and kettle.

[*Topographical Dict.*]

Dress.] The dress of these people is a linen shirt, over which they tie a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and over that a loose coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have slippers on their feet; and persons of condition sometimes wear buskins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their slippers when they attend religious duties, or the person of their sovereign. They are fond of striped and fancied silks. The dress of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a sort of caul on their heads instead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houses consists of carpets and mattrasses, on which they sit and lie. In eating, their slovenliness is shocking. They are prohibited gold and silver vessels: Their meat is boiled or roasted to rags.

Religion.] All foreigners are here allowed the open profession of their religion, but the inhabitants of these states are Mahometans; and many subjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern sectarist, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the califs. All of them are very fond of idiots; and in some cases their protection screens offenders from punishment, for the most notorious crimes. In the

main, however, the Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of these states are now promiscuously called, (because the Saracens first entered Europe from Mauritania, the country of the Moors) have adopted the very worst parts of the Mahometan religion, and seem to have retained only as much of it as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is punished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes with impunity.

Language.] As the States of Barbary possess those countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is still spoken in some of the inland countries, and even by some inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the sea-port towns, and maritime countries, a bastard kind of Arabick is spoken; and sea-faring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spanish, &c. that is so well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca.*

Antiquities and Curiosities, natural and artificial.] This article is well worth the study of an antiquary, but the subjects of it are difficult of access. The reader can scarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek and Roman works, are replete with the most curious remains of antiquity; but they lie scattered amidst ignorant, barbarous inhabitants; and but few curious persons, except Dr. Shaw, have visited the country. Some remains of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatness are still to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidences of their ancient grandeur and populousness. These point out the old Julia Cesarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itself. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are said to be still remaining, but no vestige of its walls. The same is the fate of Uricha, and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and so overrun is the country with barbarism, that their very sites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other publick buildings which remain still in tolerable preservation. Besides those of classical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the most stupendous magnificence, are likewise found in this vast tract; these were erected under the califs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was subdued by the Turks, or reduced to its present form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curiosities belonging to this country, excepting its salt-pits, which in some places take up an area of six miles. Dr. Shaw mentions springs found here that are so hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender, in a quarter of an hour.

Cities and Publick Buildings.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez, 30 miles distant, and very populous. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but by the best accounts the common people live in a dirty slovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses,

and 107 mosques. Their publick baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is very beautiful, being built on the declivity of a mountain; but the city, though for several ages it has braved some of the greatest powers in Christendom, it is said could make but a faint defence against a regular siege, and that three English fifty gun ships might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour. If so, the Spaniards must have been very deficient either in courage or conduct. They attacked it in the year 1775, by land and by sea, but were repulsed with great loss, though they had near 20,000 foot and 2,000 horse, and 47 king's ships of different rates, and 346 transports. In the year 1783 and 1784, they also renewed their attacks by sea, to destroy the city and gallies; but after spending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or extinction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a small island, where there is a castle and large battery. There are several salt rivers and springs, and a mountain of salt near the lake called Marks. [*Pinkerton.*] See this article in the Gazetteer of the Eastern continent, published for the Authors, by S. Etheridge, Charlestown, 1801.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these states, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. The capital, about thirty miles south of old Carthage, has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the publick exchange for merchants and their goods; but, like Algiers, it is distressed for want of fresh water.

The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but never can make any considerable figure, on account of the inconveniences attending its situation, particularly the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Constantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides, excepting the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. The city of Fez, at present the capital of the kingdom so called, is said to contain nearly 300,000 inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners.

Its mosques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracy of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about 2 miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, consort of Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and it must have been a most noble acquisition, had not the misunderstandings between the king and his parliament occasioned him to blow up its fortifications and demolish its harbour; so that,

from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, besieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within 20 miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houses; but the inhabitants are said to be rich, and tolerably civilized in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, and Gesula, form no part of the states of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious. Zaara is a desert country, thinly peopled, and nearly destitute of both water and provisions.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The lower subjects of these States know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be supplied with necessary utensils and manufactures; so that their exports consist chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, sword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and softer than those of Turkey, though not so good in other respects. As they leave almost all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Christians settled among them, the latter have established silk and linen works, which supply the higher ranks of their own subjects. They have no ships, that properly speaking, are employed in commerce; so that the French and English carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their exports, besides those already mentioned, consist in elephant's teeth ostrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum-arabick, and sandrack. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and some inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vast numbers of negroes who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their publick or private capacities; the particulars of which are too many to specify. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, were formerly but half those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected are seldom punished.

It has often been thought surprising, that the Christian powers should suffer their marine to be insulted by those barbarians, who take the ships of all nations with whom they are not at peace, or rather who do not pay them a subsidy, either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwise than by supposing, first, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be their lord paramount; secondly, that no Christian power would be fond of seeing Algiers and the rest of that coast in possession of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would instantly carry their effects to their deserts and mountains; so that the

benefit resulting from the conquest must be tedious and precarious. Indeed, expeditions against Algiers have been undertaken by the Spaniards, but they were ill-conducted and unsuccessful: Of these, some account hath already been given.

Constitution and Government.] In Morocco, government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters; nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is seldom that they mind the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however, of the califate government still continue; for in places where no military officer resides, the mufti or high priest is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the Grand Signior to be his superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance as the chief representative of Mahomet. What we have said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis and Tripoli have each of them a Turkish bashaw or dey, who governs in the name of the Grand Signior, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious subjects to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which commonly does by murder, every soldier in the army has a vote in choosing the succeeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodshed, yet it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognized and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte; but that is seldom refused, as the divan is no stranger to the dispositions of the people. The power of the dey is despotick; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000l. a year, without greatly oppressing the subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. A detachment of the army of their states is annually sent into each province, to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes they take at sea, sometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the Grand Signior is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance, the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which consists of thirty bashaws. These bashaws seldom fail of forming parties, among the soldiers, against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council; and the strongest candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is deposed; sometimes, though but very seldom, he resigns his authority to save his life; and it is seldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited; but an unsuccessful expedition, or too pacifick a conduct, seldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

Revenues.] We have already mentioned those of Algiers, but they are now said to be exceeded by Tunis. They consist of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Christians, a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations, who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, because none of his subjects can be said to possess any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of Christian slaves are his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of the other states, which entitles him to a part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahometan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewise considerable profits in the Negroland and other caravans, especially the slave trade towards the south. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000l. a year.

Military Strength by Sea and Land.] By the best accounts we have received, the king of Morocco can bring to the field 100,000 men; but the strength of this army consists of cavalry mounted by his negro slaves. Those wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but that king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Sallee, and being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6,500 foot, consisting of Turks, and cologlies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About 1,000 of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring 2,000 Moorish horse into the field; but as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little trusted. Those troops are under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary States keep up a force in proportion to their abilities; so that a few years ago they refused to send any tribute to the Turkish emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and a more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished; the present inhabitants have scarcely any merchant ships belonging to them, or indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which, though increased since the last attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and small, and some years ago did not exceed six ships from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. With such a contemptible fleet, these people not only harass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of presents.

History.] There perhaps is no problem in history so unaccountable as the decay or fall of the splendour, power, and influence of the States of Barbary; which, when Rome was mistress of the world,

formed the fairest jewel in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century, that, after these states had been by turns in possession of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the califs or Saracens of Bagdad conquered them, and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, from whence their posterity was totally driven, about the year 1492, when the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to their assistance the two famous brothers Barbarossa, who were admirals of the Turkish fleet, and who, after breaking the Spanish yoke, imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unsuccessful; and, as already observed, the inhabitants have in fact shaken off the Turkish yoke likewise. The emperors or kings of Morocco are the successors of those sovereigns of that country who were all called xeriffs, and whose powers resembled that of the califate of the Saracens. They have been in general a set of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebastian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continued state of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes ever since; nor does the crown of Great-Britain sometimes disdain, as in the year 1769, to purchase their friendship with presents.

TRIBES OF AFRICA,

NORTH FROM THE TROPICK OF CANCER.

MONSELMINES

ARE a people inhabiting that part of Biledulgerid, which borders on Morocco. Their territory extends from 30 leagues beyond Cape Non, to 20 from St. Croix. They are composed of ancient, and fugitive Moors. Their country is very fertile, and requires but little cultivation. Their plains are watered by innumerable streams; their gardens abound with grapes, from which the Jews make brandy; their fields are shaded by fig, date, palm and almond trees. Being between the pastoral and agricultural state, they both cultivate the ground, and tend their flocks. Their houses are built of stone and earth. They are low, and covered with sloping terraces. Those who reside in towns are generally weavers, shoemakers, potters and goldsmiths. In the country they are hospitable. Towns of every country have little of this spirit. The Monselmines are extremely greedy

of property, and economical in preserving it. They often bury their money, and die without discovering the place to their children. Their government is republican, their elections annual. Being Mahometans, they allow polygamy, yet women are treated with a degree of respect. They are admitted into society, are at liberty to walk at large, to visit their friends, and excused from many drudgeries of the field. A woman is not seen here harnessed to the plough, and drawing with an ass or mule, as in Morocco. Like other Mahometans they detest Christians and Jews, but from regard to their property, are kind to them, when their slaves. Zealous for liberty, they are daring warriors. [*Gazetteer.*]

MONGEARTS

ARE one of the most considerable tribes of the Sahara desert. They inhabit the northern part bordering on the Monselmines, and extend from Cape Bojador to Cape Blanco. In the shepherd state of society, their lands barren, they are not so warlike as their neighbours. The shifting mountains of sand forbid cultivation, and drive them from place to place. When the storm begins, the Arab loads his camels, and flies with all he has, or is buried alive. The country abounds in wild beasts, antelopes, apes, boars, leopards, &c. They have but few cattle. Creatures patient of thirst they possess, as sheep, goats and camels. Milk is a principal article of their food. Rain water is preserved in large holes, and used when putrid. The urine of camels is carefully preserved, to wash the vessels in which they eat, or to mix with milk for drink. Too indolent to labour, their slaves and children tend their cattle; their artizans are hired from Biledulgerid. These are only goldsmiths and blacksmiths. Thence also they purchase their clothing, for which they pay in cattle. The rights of hospitality are here observed in their highest style. The person of a stranger, *having entered the tent*, is inviolable, though his hands were red with the blood of the master. The first person who sees him, directs to the tent where he may find refreshment; it is that of the chief. He is met several rods from the door, receives a draught of milk, and a cheerful welcome. His camels are unloaded; his arms and effects are ranged round him. A kind entertainment is set before him, though it should occasion the family to fast. Though the women are treated but little better than slaves, often receiving blows instead of caresses, they are faithful to their husbands, believing that in the next world the unchaste will be slaves to honest wives. In the government of their children they never employ force; though they have schools, they seldom learn to read. They comply with every wish of the deaf, the dumb and the mad. Theft is authorized by law; if the thief be taken *in the act* he is punished. The punishment of death is inflicted only on the most atrocious offenders. The sons share equally the father's estate. They are Mahometans, and detest the Jews; they offer up prayers 3 times a day. The scarcity of water compels them to rub their faces with sand at their appointed ablutions. In the summer the torrents of rain drive them to the ridges of Atlas. Their government seems to

be of the patriarchal kind; old age is venerated; the heads of families rule. This people and the Monselmines rest every seventh day from their usual labours. [*Discoveries in Africa.*]

BILEDULGERID,

IS a country of Barbary, bounded on the north by Tunis, on the east by Tripoli, on the south by Guergula, and on the west by Tuggurt. It lies between 5° and 11° east longitude, and 28° and 32° north latitude. The air is very hot; but though the soil is dry, it yields a great deal of barley.

SAHARA,

IS a desert or ocean of sand, north of Ludamar, equal in extent to half of Europe. Its west division, between Fezzan and the Atlantick, is about 1,600 miles in length, and 800 in breadth. This whole region is almost destitute of inhabitants, except in certain spots where vegetation appears. On these, a few miserable Arabs, who wander from one well to another, find a scanty pasturage for their flocks. The east part has more numerous spots, or islands of great fertility and population. The few wild animals which inhabit these forlorn regions, are the antelope and ostrich, and on the skirts of the desert, where water is more plentiful, are found lions, panthers, elephants and wild boars. The camel is the only domestick animal that dwells here. Many of the islanders in this ocean of sand, never saw any part of the globe, but the sands which surround them, nor do they conceive there are any other people on the earth. The moderns have lost the knowledge of some of these islands, which were known to the ancients. Possibly there may be others which have never yet been discovered. [*Park, Discoveries in Africa.*]

FEZZAN,

IS a country south of Tripoli, divided from Egypt by the deserts of Lybia, 60 journies west from Cairo, containing, according to the report of travellers, 28 towns, and 100 villages; the chief productions are dates and senna. The capital, Mourzook, is said to be in longitude 44° east of Cape Verd, latitude 26° north.

TRIBES OF AFRICA,

FROM THE

TROPICK OF CANCER TO THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

[SEE THE TABLE AND MAP.]

THIS immense territory is, comparatively speaking, very little known; there is no modern traveller that hath penetrated into the interior parts; so that we are ignorant not only of the bounds, but even of the names of several inland countries. In many material circumstances, the inhabitants of this extensive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyssinia, they are all of a black complexion; in their religion, except on the sea-coasts, which have been visited and settled by strangers, they are Pagans; and the form of government is every where monarchical, or despotick. Few princes, however, possess a very extensive jurisdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are said to be grossly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they must be little acquainted with one another; and generally united in small societies, each is governed by its own prince. In Congo, Loango and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but on examination, it is found that the authority of these princes stands on a precarious footing, each tribe or separate body of their subjects, being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, styled Negus, to whose commands, however contrary to those of *Negascha Negascht*, or king of kings, they are always ready to submit. This indeed must always be the case among rude nations, where the art of governing, like all others, is in a very simple and imperfect state. In the succession to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the descendants, whether male or female.

On this extensive coast of Africa are the following tribes or nations.

FOULAHS OF GUINEA,

ARE a people south of the Gambia, on the Rio Grande. Their complexion is tawny, their hair soft and silky, their features pleasing. In the pastoral state of society, they have introduced themselves into all the kingdoms on the windward coast, as herdsmen and husbandmen, paying tribute for the land they hold. Wherever they dwell they are viewed as strangers: yet they consider the natives as their inferiors, and rank themselves with white men. Like the Jews they introduce

themselves wherever they can gain a good living. The majority are Mahometans. Small schools are established in different towns, in which they are taught to read the Koran. Great skill they display in the management of their cattle. Milk is not used till sour; no cheese is made. These people are remarkably industrious. On the Gambia the greater part of the corn is raised by them. Their lands and flocks are more productive and numerous than the Mandingoes, who are lords of the soil. In Bondou they are opulent in a high degree, and in great profusion enjoy all the necessaries of life. They are visible proofs of what superior industry and enterprise can effect. Scarcely any Mandingo town, but has a Foulah village near it. So distinguished are they for benevolence and hospitality, that the natives think it a great privilege to have a Foulah settlement in their neighbourhood. Rarely are they angry, living together in great friendship; they cheerfully support their aged, lame, blind, and poor of every description. Teembo is the capital, lat. 10 N. lon. 10 E.

JINBALA

IS a small kingdom. The soil is remarkably fertile; the inhabitants are negroes, some of them very opulent. [*Park.*]

MANDING,

IS a republick bordering upon the Niger. Every town has a governour or mansa. The chief power of the state in the last resort is in a congress of these mansas. [*Park.*]

MANDINGOES,

ARE a people who constitute the bulk of the inhabitants in the interior of Africa. Their language is generally spoken and always understood. The government of this people near the Gambia is monarchical; but the monarch is limited in his authority. He neither makes peace, nor war, but according to the council of the principal men. In every considerable town there is a magistrate, whose office is hereditary, called the Alkaid. His business is to preserve order, levy duties upon travellers, and preside at the administration of justice. The soil is so remarkably fertile, as to produce almost spontaneously all the necessaries of life: with a little cultivation a rich abundance. They are an obliging, mild, and social people. They pray to God to pardon their sins, and grant them his favour. Many of them gain a livelihood by keeping school: such is their reputation for integrity, that in time of war they pass from one nation to another, instructing the people and children. The men are commonly above the middle size, well shaped, strong and capable of labour. The smith's, potter's, saddler's, and weaver's trades are practised. The women are good natured, sprightly and agreeable; both dress in cotton cloth of their

own manufacture. The Portuguese, who settled here in 1420, are now almost as black as the negroes; but retain somewhat of their own dialect, and some christian ceremonies, being annually visited by a priest, of St. Jago. Their houses are only incommodious hovels. A circular wall, 4 feet high, with a conical roof of bamboo cane, thatched with grass, forms the hut of the slave, and the palace of the king. Their bed is a mat or bullock's hide, spread upon upright stakes, 2 feet high. A water jar, some earthen pots, wooden bowls, calabashes, and one or two stools, compose their furniture. Polygamy being practised, each wife has a hut to herself. After marriage, so pure are their morals, they require the same tokens of former chastity, as did the law of Moses. In the principal towns is a mosque. Three fourths of the people are slaves.

[*Park, Le Brue, Jobson, Adanson.*]

QUOGA,

IS a kingdom on the coast of Guinea, which reaches from Sierra Leone to the Grain Coast. In the cantons and villages the seniors preside, but the supreme power resides in a chief, who is jealous of his authority. Here pomp is displayed; ambassadors are introduced with great formality; musick enlivens the processions. The Quogans acknowledge a supreme Being, whom they call Kanno. To him they attribute omnipotence, omniscience, and omnipresence; from him proceeds all good. He is to be succeeded by another, who will reward the good and punish the wicked. They venerate the spirits of the dead, whom they call *Janaanin* or *Protectors*. To these they offer sacrifices; to their graves they fly, and cry for help in time of trouble, as well as to God. Neither women nor children can enter the groves where they are supposed to reside. Provisions are carried to their graves three times a year. They celebrate new moons by orgies, and rest from labour. This and the adjacent kingdoms are remarkable for two associations, which in Mysticism, resemble our masonick fraternities. One is appropriate to men; the other to women. Their meetings are not so frequent as ours; sometimes they do not meet for several years. Of the men the king is the visible head. It is termed the *Society of the Belli*. They meet in a wood of palm trees, where under verdant arches raised by the hand of the Grand Master himself, the mysteries of the Lodge are revealed. Here all the young men naked as nature formed them, resort to learn, as they suppose, what is *useful*. The brotherhood enjoy all the publick offices of trust and profit in the kingdom. Musick is not neglected. They are taught to sing the Bellidong, or praises of Belli. The lodge of negro women is styled *The confederacy of the Hen*. For their meeting, a number of huts are prepared in a remote wood, where all the marriageable girls are conducted in the dark and still night. After the festival of initiation, they are bathed, their hair cut off, circumcised, and taught the superstitions of the country. Here they continue naked four months; after which they return home in the night. Naked they enter the town in solemn procession, and are met by the other

females in the same style. It would be death for a man to be caught gratifying his curiosity. The lodge take cognizance of crimes, and punish, by conducting their convicts to the wood of *Belli*, where they are never heard of again. They are supposed to possess the power of devils, to inflict any calamity they please. They are, therefore, never called to an account for their own conduct.

[*Discoveries in Africa.*]

GOLD COAST,

IS a name given to a country of Africa, near the Atlantick, about 120 leagues in length from E. to W. between the rivers Ancobar and Volta. It contains a variety of different states and kingdoms, and received its name from the immense quantity of gold which it produces. Several of the European nations have settlements here. The climate is exceedingly hot from October to March, the rest of the months are tolerable. The natives enjoy a good state of health, and are subject to but few diseases; to Europeans the climate is frequently unwholesome, and often proves fatal, especially in the months of July and August. Their wealth enables them to gratify their taste for ornaments. The women wear gold, and coral chains about their necks, arms, legs and waists; they cover themselves with ornaments. The king, while at home, is not distinguished by any marks of grandeur. His clothes are not worth a shilling; bread, oil, stinking fish, and water, make his bill of fare. But when abroad, and on publick days, he and his wives and attendants appear in splendour. In the use of fire arms they are very expert: Many use lances, sabres and shields. Like all ignorant people in every country, they believe in omens, charms, ghosts, lucky days and witchcraft. These negroes believe in one God, who created and preserves all things. They have an idea of immortality, and expect future rewards and punishments. Every one has his Fetish, a substance or ornament, dedicated to God, which is viewed with the greatest reverence. Ignorantly supposing it presumptuous to address God, they apply to their Fetishes, as Mediators. When oppressed with calamity they make sacrifices to obtain relief. Annually, in a formal manner, they banish the devil from among them. After a feast of 8 days, they have a rude procession, throwing dirt and stones to drive away the foul spirit. Polygamy, in all its ugly forms, is familiar here. Their women are delivered without assistance, with little pain; after which they soon go and bathe in the sea. The wealthy protect and supply the poor: No one is obliged to beg. In this delightful country they live together in great union; they are well tempered, civil and tractable. In sickness, when other remedies fail, they have recourse to their pagan priests, who require expensive offerings, which are submitted to their disposal. Their funerals are a medley of mournful howlings, and savage drunkenness. At the interment of their kings, the favourite wife and servant, with a number of slaves, are sacrificed, to attend them in the other world. Orange, lemon, cocoa, palm and cabbage trees are common. Maize, rice and wheat are plenty. Sheep, asses,

goats and cows increase their wealth. Their land is extremely fruitful. Elephants, tigers, apes and wild cats, roam their deserts. Here is a species of ants, which raise a pile 12 feet high for their dwelling. No animal can stand before these creatures; they will eat every particle of flesh from the most formidable foe. The people of this coast contemplate death with horror. No person would dare mention the subject to the king on pain of death.

[*Barbot, Moor, Artus, Atkins, Bosman, Loyer, Smith.*]

BENIN,

IS a country or kingdom, extending a course of 60 leagues on the borders of the Atlantick; how far it extends inland is not known; it is watered by a considerable number of streams, some of which are considerable rivers. The soil near the sea coast is low and marshy, and the climate unhealthy; farther from the sea the land is more elevated, and the air more pure. In some districts springs are so rare, that officers are appointed to supply travellers with fresh water, who else must die with thirst; but this commodity is not given, he who drinks must pay. In the rivers are a great number of crocodiles, sea horses, and a species of torpedo, with many kinds of excellent fish. Among the animals are elephants in great numbers, tigers, leopards, stags, wild boars, apes, civit cats, mountain cats, horses, hares, and hairy sheep; there are a vast number of reptiles, serpents and others. Of the birds, the principal are paroquets, pigeons, partridges, storks and ostriches. The soil in general is fertile; oranges and lemons grow on the sides of the roads; the pepper which grows here is smaller than that of the Indies; cotton grows on a tree which abounds every where; the water is most excellent. The negroes of Benin are said to be kind and honest, but with great courage resisting injustice; attached to their ancient customs; they are complaisant to strangers, generous, sensible, yet reserved and diffident: The children of both sexes are circumcised, and go naked till they are 12 years of age. Polygamy is common, and the king is said to have 600 wives. The crime of adultery is seldom committed, but when detected, is punished with the death of both the parties, and their bodies thrown on a dung-hill. The king exercises an absolute authority over his subjects; three great officers, distinguished by a string of coral, continually attend upon him to consult, instruct, or decide in his name. The king names his successor among his sons, who is not publickly announced till after the death of his father. A regency is appointed, which then takes the administration of affairs, while the new king elect is removed some miles from the capital, there to learn the art of government; the first fruit of which, on his return, is putting to death the rest of his brothers. He rarely shews himself, and always with pomp amidst his wives and concubines: His revenues are considerable, and he can bring an army of 100,000 men into the field. As to their religion, they seem to have an idea of, and a reverence for, a Supreme Being, to whom they ascribe the attributes of omnipresence, omniscience and invisibility. They say he governs

all things by his Providence. They have an annual feast in honour of their deceased ancestors. The dress of the inhabitants is neat and ornamental; the rich among them, who are generous to the poor, wear first white calico or cotton petticoats, about a yard in length, and half a yard in breadth, by way of drawers. This they cover with another fine piece of calico of 16 or 20 yards, which they very artfully and becomingly plait in the middle, throwing over it a scarf, a yard long, and a foot wide, the ends of which are adorned with a handsome lace or fringe. As to the upper part of the body, it is mostly naked. Such is the dress in which they appear in publick; at home their clothing is more simple and less expensive, consisting only of a coarse paan for drawers, covered with a large painted cloth, worn in the manner of a cloak, of home manufacture. They have no slaves. [*Moor, Bosman, Barbot, Smith.*]

WHYDAH,

IS one of the most delightful provinces of the world, on the slave coast. Its southern limits are washed by the Atlantick. Their lofty trees shade the ground like artificial groves. Verdant fields are every where cultivated, which are separated by nothing but these groves and populous villages. Not a mountain or a hill obstructs the sight; an imperceptible ascent extends 40 or 50 miles from the sea. All the fruits of the gold coast are cultivated here; the climate is unhealthy for *strangers*. Hens, geese, and turkeys are plenty. They have swine, sheep, goats, cows, elephants, deer, tigers, apes and buffaloes. The people dress better than on the gold coast; yet the lower class generally have nothing but a cotton napkin, or a few herbs fastened round their middle. The king's wives, and the grandees are naked from the waist upwards; yet they are adorned with pearls, corals and gold. These people are remarkably civil to strangers. Kind and industrious, none of them beg. Their respect for their king shows a servile adoration. The highest Grandee, when he would address the Monarch, lays aside his ornaments, and his clothing; he wraps a few weeds round his waist, prostrates himself at the door of audience, creeps to the throne, and speaks with his face towards the floor; then retires creeping backwards. If any man accidentally touch any part of the king's wife, his head is forfeited, and she is doomed to slavery. They are industrious, carrying on several useful manufactures. So zealous are they in gaming, that, after having lost all their substance, they stake their children, their wives, and finally themselves; and are sold into perpetual slavery. One man often has 40 or 50 wives, sometimes 3 or 400, and the king as many thousands. So long have the laws of nature been perverted and insulted, that she now produces here, and in other countries, where polygamy has long prevailed, many more women than men. For adultery with a wife of the king, the man is tied to a spit, and roasted by a slow fire; the woman is destroyed by the other wives pouring pitchers of hot water on her head, and instantly burying her, whether dead or alive. The crown is hereditary; the palace is furnished in the Eu-

ropean style. They have French cooks, and entertainments of black lords are supplied with the same delicacies, as Parisian Consuls. The people practise circumcision, and have a confused belief of a God, and future rewards and punishments. They worship four subordinate Deities; a particular kind of serpent, the killing of which is punished with death; the trees; the sea; and an idol, which they call Agoga, or the god of counsels.

[*Moor, Smith, Bosman, Snelgrave, Barbot.*]

LOANGO,

IS a country situated on the W. coast, towards the Atlantick, bounded N. by Benin, E. by Anziko, S. by Congo. The climate is very hot. But it is healthy and pleasant, and its soil fertile and capable of improvement; but the natives, like all the rest along these coasts, are naturally lazy, and averse to the fatigues of agriculture; whence it frequently happens, that a bad season is followed by a famine. The cotton and pimento trees grow wild, as well as the paradise grain. The enzanda, alicandi and metamba, afford them plenty of materials for clothing and other uses, as building and covering their houses, and making their ships and smaller vessels. Sugar-canes, cassia and tobacco grow here. They have but few cattle except goats. The oxen brought hither have died; hogs are plenty, and poultry is so cheap, that six penny worth of beads will purchase 30 of them. Pheasants, partridges, and other wild fowls are in greater abundance. Among wild beasts, they have the zebra, and multitudes of elephants, whose teeth they exchange with the Europeans for iron. The natives, who are called bramas, are tall, stout, well shaped, and well behaved, though formerly wild and inhuman cannibals. They use circumcision; are industrious, friendly and generous to one another; very fond of their palm wine, yet despising that of the grape. They are libidinous to a high degree, and very jealous of their wives. They carry on a variety of trades and handicrafts, in the various capacities of weavers, smiths, carpenters, bed-makers, potters, canoe-makers, fishermen; others are traders and merchants. Their dress is most commonly of their own manufacture, chiefly of cloth made of palm leaves. The young palm shoots are first carefully cropped and dried, then soaked and softened in palm wine, and well rubbed with the hand. These being spun and woven, are made into suits for the better sort, which hang round the body, from the girdle down to the feet. All their various garments are tied about the middle with a rich girdle, going several times about the body, and some of them curiously wrought, of the same materials with their richest clothes. They allow polygamy: a great man has generally 10, 12 or more wives, and the poorest seldom less than 2 or 3. The consent of the parents, and paying down the price agreed on for the wife, is all the formality and courtship that is used in their marriages. They acknowledge a God, under the name of Sambian Pongo, but neither pay any adoration to him, nor appear to have any idea of his nature or attributes, and consequently, neither love,

nor fear, nor pray to him. All their worship and invocations are directed to their demons, both domestick and rural, to whom they ascribe the sole power of blessing or of cursing them, of directing the winds, rains, storms, or fine weather, fruitful or unfruitful, healthy or sickly seasons. The Loangoese entertain various notions concerning the nature of the human soul, but all of them very extravagant, and bordering on the metempsychosis. Though their monarchs only style themselves mani, or lords of Loango, their subjects not only give them the title of mokissos, but imagine them to be endowed with a kind of supernatural and unlimited power. He can, according to them, not only enrich and impoverish his subjects by one single word, raise destructive wars in the provinces, and send myriads of people to their graves; but, what is still more extraordinary, he can bring down or withhold rains and storms at his pleasure. The priests of this country, all take the title of mokisso. The commerce consists chiefly in slaves. They sell great quantities of ivory, tin, lead, iron and copper, which they fetch as far as from the mines of Sundi, adjoining Abyssinia. The smiths and artists repair to these mines in September, and set their slaves to work in them. They melt the ore on the spot; but as they have not the art of purifying it from other metals, which will intermix with it, even within the bowels of the earth, their copper is neither pure nor valuable. The Europeans have sent some artists to teach them how to refine it, but the natives are either so indocile or indolent, that they have not reaped any great advantage from their instructions. Loango was formerly part of the kingdom of Congo, but the mani, or governours of its several provinces, revolted from it, and erected themselves into independent principalities, till one of them grew rich and powerful enough to subdue all the rest, and not only to assume the royal title and dignity, but to strip his old master of several other of his provinces, and to make himself so absolute in his new kingdom, as to be in some measure worshipped as a god by his subjects. They give him the name or title, of Sambo Pongo, which is that of the Deity, and address him either for rain or fruitful seasons, with greater solemnity than other nations use towards their gods. The kingdom is divided into four principal provinces, viz. Lovangiri, Lovango-mongo, Kilongo, and Piri. Kilongo is a maritime province, and the largest and most populous of the four. It is situated between the rivers of Quila on the S. and Combi on the N. Its plains are spacious and fertile, and sheltered at a distance by ridges of high mountains. Its inhabitants trade in elephant's teeth, are peaceable, have plenty of cattle and fowl, both wild and tame, and delight much in hunting. The game they take, and milk, constitute their chief food. There are abundance of towns and villages in all the provinces, concerning most of which we know little else but their names.

CONGO,

IS a country between the equinoctial line and 18 degrees of S. lat. containing the kingdoms of Loango, Congo, Angola and

Benguela. It was discovered by the Portuguese in 1481, and is bounded on the N. by Benin, by the inland part of Africa on the E. by Matamon on the S. and by the Atlantick Ocean on the W. It is sometimes called Lower Guinea; and the Portuguese have a great many settlements on the coast, as well as in the inland country. They have many desert places within land, in which are elephants, tigers, leopards, monkies, and monstrous serpents; but near the coast, the soil is extremely fertile; and there are fruits of many kinds, besides palm trees, from which they get wine and oil. The inhabitants are skilful in weaving cotton cloth; and they trade in slaves, ivory, cassia and tamarinds; the greatest part of them go almost naked, worshipping the sun, moon, and stars, beside animals of different kinds; but the Portuguese have made many converts to christianity. Congo, properly so called, is only 150 miles broad along the coast, but is 372 inland. From March to September is called the winter season, when it rains almost every day; and the summer is from October to March, when the weather is very hot. The river Zaire is full of crocodiles and river horses. The principal town is St. Salvador.

ANGOLA,

IS a kingdom, bounded on the N. by Congo Proper, on the E. by Malemba, on the S. by Benguela, and on the west by the ocean. It produces Indian corn, beans, oranges, lemons, and several other fruits in great abundance. The inhabitants live in ease, are generally idolators, and take as many wives as they think fit. The country is divided among several petty princes, and the Portuguese have several settlements on the coast; but the English and Dutch traffick with the natives, and purchase a great number of slaves. Many of them are christians, a civil and intelligent people.

[*Astley's Collection.*]

BIRI,

IS an inland kingdom, in the southern part of Africa. They treat strangers with generosity and kindness. The office of chief, judge, instructor of children, fortune-teller, priest, and prophet, is united in the same persons. They alone have the privilege of wearing mantles of tiger and zebra skins. These procure the person who wears them various marks of respect. All who meet the persons in this dress, lay their right hand on their head, their left on their breast, till they pass by. The population of this kingdom amounts to about 16,000 souls. The land is fruitful and well cultivated, but their principal wealth is their cattle. They have mines of rock salt, which they sell for cattle. The people are tall and well made, wear aprons of palm leaves; the women are modest, covering their breasts with palm leaves. Their colour is rather yellow than brown. Every morning and evening these savage pagans address God in prayer:

they practise circumcision; and are rigid in the education of their children. For adultery the man forfeits his cattle, the woman is expelled the community. Their principal food is milk, millet and flour. Their huts are spacious and of a circular form. After harvest they have a feast, which lasts 2 days; the third is a fast.

[*Damberger.*]

ABYSSINIA.

THIS country is reckoned to be 920 miles long, and 900 broad. It lies between 6° and 20° of N. lat. and 26° and 44° E. lon. from London; and is bounded on the N. by the kingdom of Sennaar or Nubia; on the E. by the Red Sea and Duncala; W. by Gorham; and S. by the kingdom of Gingiro and Alaba. According to Mr. Bruce, it contains the following provinces, viz.

1. Massuah	5. Amhara	9. Maisha
2. Tigre	6. Walaka	10. Dembea
3. Samen	7. Gojam	11. Kuara
4. Begemder	8. Damot	12. Nara

We are but imperfectly acquainted with the manners and customs of the people of this extensive country. The accounts given us by Mr. Bruce, of the Abyssinians, represent them as in a state of very great barbarism. Their manner of feeding is beyond a parallel. He informs us, that, having fallen in with some soldiers driving a cow before them, he was surprised to see them throw down the animal, cut off pieces of her flesh, and then flapping the skin over the wound, make her get up and walk on as before. This he at first supposed to be a military manœuvre, and an expeditious method of carrying provisions along with them; but he soon found that it was the common practice of the country, and that the fate of the unfortunate animals used by Abyssinians for food, was much worse than if they were devoured by the most cruel wild beasts. The latter would kill them at once, or at least not keep them long in torment; but these wild beasts *in human shape* protract their agonies as much as possible; flesh being in no estimation among them, unless it be warm and quivering with life. In their manners they are debauched in the most incredible degree; the country is a seat of continual war and bloodshed; ignorance and the most abominable superstitions universally prevail; and when to all this we join the nominal profession of Christianity, the idea is too shocking to be borne.

Although we read from the Jesuits (says Mr. Bruce) a great deal about marriage and polygamy, yet there is nothing which may be averred more truly, than that there is no such thing as marriage in Abyssinia, unless that which is contracted by mutual consent, without other forms, subsisting only till dissolved by one or the other, and to be renewed or repealed as often as it is agreeable to both parties, who, when they please, cohabit together as man and wife, after having been divorced, had children by others, or whether they have been married, or had children with others or not. Upon separation

they divide the children. If the numbers are unequal, they are divided by lot. There is no such distinction as legitimate or illegitimate children, from the king to the beggar.

The religion of the Abyssinians is a mixture of Christianity, Judaism and Paganism, the two latter of which are by far the most predominant. There are here more churches than in any other country; and though it is very mountainous, and consequently the view much obstructed, it is very seldom you see less than five or six churches. Every great man that dies, thinks he has atoned for all his wickedness, if he leaves a fund to build a church, or has built one in his life-time. Wherever a victory is obtained, a church is erected; the situation for them is always chosen near running water, for the convenience of their purifications and ablutions, in which they observe strictly the levitical law. The churches are all round, with thatched roofs; their summits are perfect cones; the outside is surrounded by a number of wooden pillars, which are nothing else than the trunks of the cedar tree, and are placed to support the edifice, about eight feet of the roof projecting beyond the wall of the church, which forms an agreeable walk or colonnade, around it, in hot weather, or in rain. The inside of the church is in several divisions, according as is prescribed by the law of Moses. The first is a circle somewhat wider than the inner one; here the congregation sit and pray. Within this is a square, and that square is divided by a veil or curtain, in which is another very small division, answering to the holy of holies.

This is so narrow, that none but the priests can go into it. You must be barefooted whenever you enter the church, and then you may go through every part of it, provided you are pure, that is, have not been concerned with women for 24 hours before, nor touched dead bodies or carrion; in which case, you must stand at an awful distance and say your prayers.

The churches are full of pictures, slovenly painted on parchment, and nailed upon the walls. Sometimes for a particular church they get a number of pictures of saints, on skins of parchment ready finished from Cairo, in a style very little superior to their own performances. There is no choice in their saints, they are both of the Old and New Testaments, and those that might be dispensed with from both. There is St. Pontius Pilate and his wife; there is St. Balaam and his ass; Samson and his jaw-bone; and so of the rest.

The Abyssinians receive the holy sacraments in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape, bruised with the husk together, as it grows; so that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat spoon. Large pieces of bread are given to the communicants in proportion to their quality, and it sometimes is the case with great men, who, though they open their mouths as wide as they conveniently can, yet, from the respect the priest pays them, such a portion of the loaf is put into their mouths, that water runs from their eyes, from the incapacity of chewing it, which however they do as indecently, and with full as much noise as they eat at table.

The Abyssinians are not all agreed about the state of souls before the resurrection of the body. The opinion which generally prevails,

is, that there is no third state, but that after the example of the thief, the souls of good men enjoy beatifick vision immediately upon the separation from the body. But their practice and books both contradict this; for when any person dies, alms are given, and prayers are offered for the souls of those departed, which would be vain did they believe they were in the presence of God.

The fertility of a country so prodigiously extensive, might be supposed more various than we find it is; in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to advantages of soil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile; this arises from the intense heat of the sun, which, where it meets with sufficient moisture, produces with the utmost luxuriancy; and in those countries where there are few rivers, reduces the surface of the earth to a barren sand. Of this sort are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and consequently of all other necessaries, are reduced to perfect deserts, as the name of the latter denotes. In those countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land, part of the year, as in Abyssinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the highest perfection and greatest abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Truticui, Monomotapa, Casati and Mehenemugi, are extremely rich in gold and silver. The baser metals likewise are found in these and many other parts of Africa. But the persons of the natives, detestable as is the traffick, make the most considerable article in the produce and trade of this miserable quarter of the globe.

In Congo, Christianity was preached soon after the arrival of the Portuguese; and missionaries are still well received there. Encouragements have been offered at different times, particularly in the present reign, to the religious in the convents of Portugal to labour in the conversion of the natives of Congo, Angola, and their other African possessions. Many missionaries have accordingly undertaken this pious work, at different times. Their success appears to have been considerable, and had they been steadily supported, there is reason to believe it would have been complete. Many Portuguese bishops reside in this part of Africa, and numbers of the *natives* have been regularly ordained priests. Another thing reputable for the Portuguese is, they carry on the slave trade with as much humanity as it is possible to exercise in such a detestable traffick. The sailors are chiefly blacks, who comfort and soothe the slaves; iron fetters are seldom used; very few deaths happen; the ships are not crowded. Yet to talk of humanity in the slave trade is like describing a mild pestilence, or a harmless plague. [*Walker.*]

The principal towns in this part of Africa, which are known, are the following:

Gondar, the metropolis of Abyssinia, is situated upon a hill of considerable height, the top of it nearly plain, on which the town is placed. It consists of about ten thousand families in times of peace. The houses are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the construction within the tropical rains. On the west end of the town is the king's house, formerly a structure of con-

siderable consequence; it was a square building, flanked with square towers, was formerly four stories high, and from the top of it had a magnificent view of all the country southward to the lake Izana. Great part of this house is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is still ample lodging in the two lowest floors of it; the audience chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

Adwa, the capital of Tigré, is situated on the west side of a small plain, surrounded every way by mountains; it contains about 300 houses; it was not formerly the capital, but has accidentally become so upon the accession of the governour, whose property lies in and about it. His mansion-house resembles a prison rather than a palace; for there are, in and about it, more than 300 persons in irons, some of whom have been there for 20 years, mostly with a view to extort money from them. Adwa is the seat of a considerable manufacture of coarse cotton cloth, which circulates instead of money all over Abyssinia.

Siré, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated on the brink of a very steep narrow valley. In the midst of this valley runs a brook bordered with palm-trees, which bear no fruit; its houses are all of clay. This town is also famous for the manufacture of coarse cotton cloths, which pass for current money through all the province of Tigré; beside these, beads, needles, cohol and incense at times only, are considered as money. Siré is situated in lat. 14° 4′ 35″ north, lon. 38° 0′ 16″ east from Greenwich; and although in one of the finest countries in the world, (says Mr. Bruce) putrid fevers of the very worst kind are almost constant here.

The nations bounding on Abyssinia are but little or not at all known. They are, the chief of them, on the north, south and west, Pagan blacks. Sennaar, the chief town of the kingdom of Sennaar, is in lat. 13° 34′ 36″ north, lon. 33° 30′ 30″ east from Greenwich: It is on the west side of the Nile, and close upon the banks of it. The ground whereon it stands, rises just enough to prevent the river from entering the town. The country around Sennaar is exceedingly pleasant in the months of August and September. The corn at this season is now sprung up, and makes the whole of this immense plain appear a level green land, interspersed with great lakes of water, and ornamented at certain intervals with groups of villages, the conical tops of the houses appearing at a distance like small encampments. Through this extensive plain, winds the Nile, a delightful river there, more than a mile broad, full to the brim, but never overflowing. Every where on these banks are seen numerous herds of the most beautiful cattle of various kinds, the tribute recently extorted from all the Arabs; who, freed from their vexations, return home with the remainder of their flocks in peace, at as great a distance from the town, country, and their oppressors as they possibly can.

War and treason seem to be the only employment of this horrid people, whom Heaven has separated by almost impassable deserts from the rest of mankind. The dress of the Sennaars is very simple; it consists of a long shirt of blue surat cloth, called marotuy, which covers them from the lower part of their neck down to their feet, but

does not conceal the neck itself; and this is the only difference between the men's and women's dress; that of the women covering theirs altogether, being buttoned like ours. Both men and women go barefooted in the house. Their floors are covered with Persian carpets, especially the women's apartments. In fair weather, they wear sandals; and without doors they use a kind of wooden patten, neatly ornamented with shells. In the greatest heat at noon, they order buckets of water to be thrown upon them instead of bathing. Both men and women anoint themselves, at least once a day, with camel's grease, mixed with civet, which they imagine softens their skin, and preserves them from cutaneous eruptions, of which they are so fearful, that the smallest pimple in any visible part of their body, keeps them in their house till it disappears. They lie all night, in a shirt dipped in grease, upon a bull's hide tanned, very much softened by this constant greasing, and very cool at the same time, though it occasions a smell that no washing can free them from. Their horned cattle are the largest and fattest in the world, and are exceedingly fine; but the common meat sold in the market, is camel's flesh: The liver of the animal and the spare-rib are always eaten raw, through the whole country.

All the nations of Africa, within the tropicks, are wonderfully affected at the smallest eruption or roughness of the skin; nor is there any remedy, however violent, that they will not fly to, for immediate relief. A very singular complaint mentioned by travellers, as common to these countries, is the Farenteit, a corruption of an Arabick word, which signifies the worm of Pharaoh. This animal afflicts those who are in a habit of drinking stagnant water. It appears indiscriminately in every part of the body; it comes on with an itching in the spot, and on observing, the small black head of this worm is very visible. Its body is seemingly of a white silky texture, very small like a tendon. After its appearance, the natives of these countries, who are used to it, seize it gently by the head, and wrap it round a thin piece of silk, or small bird's feather. Every day, or several times a day, they try to wind it up upon the quill as far as it comes readily; and upon the smallest resistance, they give over, lest it should break. They are often as much as five feet in length.

On the Guinea or western coast, the English trade to James' Fort, and other settlements near and up the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hard ware and spirituous liquors, for the persons of the natives. By the treaty of peace in 1783, the river of Senegal, with its dependencies were given up to France. Gold and ivory, next to the slave trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. These are carried on from the same coast, where the Dutch and French, as well as English, have their settlements for this purpose.

But this country, formed by Providence for the residence of every enjoyment, is drenched in tears and blood by the barbarity of the slave traders. One, who has travelled here, says, "I beheld an agreeable solitude, bounded on every side by charming landscapes. The rural situation of cottages, in the midst of trees; the ease and indolence of the negroes, reclined under the shade of their spreading

foliage; the simplicity of their dress and manners, all revived in my mind the idea of our first parents. They are generally very good natured, sociable and obliging." Guinea is populous and well cultivated; in some parts looking like an entire garden, interspersed with villages and towns, inhabited by a good sort of people, honest in their dealings, and hospitable to strangers. From this delightful land it is supposed 100,000 slaves are annually exported to the different countries of Europe and America. Thousands are slaughtered on their native shore; thousands perish on the voyage. In 1781, one hundred and twenty-two persons were thrown overboard from one vessel; ten others, who were brought upon the deck for the same purpose, leaped into the sea and shared the fate of their companions. The excuse of the captain was, that "they were sickly, and had they died natural deaths, the loss would have been the owner's; but as they were thrown alive into the sea, it would fall upon the underwriters." So deplorable, so terrible is the situation of the poor, harmless Africans! But, alas! these are not the most pitiable creatures. No. Those who purchase, torture, and murder them are in a situation infinitely more dreadful. They are slaves of guilt. Death will not break their chains; and an awful punishment awaits them in a future world.

According to a late sensible writer, (Mr. Ramsay) the annual British exports to Africa are estimated at 500,000l. including a considerable quantity that is annually exchanged with American and other foreign traders on the coast; about 50,000l. of this is returned in ivory, gold dust, gum, &c. The greatest part of the profits of the slave trade is raised on the sugar plantations. If, by establishing factories, and encouraging civilization on the coast of Africa, and returning some of the West-India and other slaves, to their original country, some amends could be made for past treachery, to the natives, and the inhabitants could be instructed in the culture of tobacco, indigo, cotton, rice, &c. to barter with us for our manufactures, great might be the profits, and much would it serve the cause of humanity. An undertaking of this kind has lately been set on foot by the *Sierra Leona* Company, which bids fair to be successful, and does very great honour to the humane gentlemen, who are agents in this business.

A colony was sent there in 1787 and 1792, consisting partly of whites and partly of blacks, from Nova-Scotia, who had been slaves in the United States of America. Missionaries from the London, Edinburgh, and Glasgow missionary societies, are labouring, not only in the little colony, but in neighbouring nations, to spread the knowledge of the gospel. Schools are also instituted for the instruction of youth. [*Connecticut Mag.*]

The Portuguese are in possession of the east and west coast of Africa, from the tropick of Capricorn to the equator; which immense tract they became masters of by their successive attempts, and happy discovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coast of Zanguebar, on the eastern side, they trade not only for the articles above mentioned, but also for several others, as senna, aloes, civet, ambergrease, and frankincense.

This includes many kingdoms. Sofala, a considerable maritime kingdom, has Sabia on the south, Monopotapa proper on the west, the river Cuama on the north, and the gulf of Sofala, which is a part of the channel of Mosambique, on the east. From the river of the Holy Ghost to Cape Corientes, the soil is very barren. But from the Cape to the river Cuama, the country is fruitful and populous. The coast is very low, and mariners discover their approach to it not so much by their sight, as by the smell of its fragrant flowers. Here are elephants, lions, and other beasts. The inhabitants are mostly negroes, but well shaped. They cover themselves from the waist to the knees with a garment of cotton or silk. They wear a poignard by their side, and a turban on their head. The inhabitants of Quitoa, Mombaza, and Melinda come to this country with blue and white cottons, silk stuffs, red and yellow ambergrease, which they sell for ivory and gold dust.

The gold mines yield more than five million dollars a year; hence Moquet supposes this the Ophir to which Solomon sent his ships from Eziongeber, or Suez, to fetch gold. This conjecture is supported by finding here several buildings, which are evidently of foreign architecture, and some inscriptions in unknown characters. This hypothesis is supported by the authority of the Septuagint, which translates Ophir, *Sophira*. Thomas Lopez, also, in his voyage to India, relates that the inhabitants of this country boast that they have books, which prove that, in the age of Solomon, the Israelites sailed every third year to these ports to fetch gold. Mr. Bruce has since, by a series of facts, which he establishes, made it very certain that Sofala is the Ophir of the scriptures.

The Portuguese have taught the natives the use of muskets; they have also bows and arrows. The capital city and the only one of note, is Sofala. It stands on a river of the same name, six leagues from the sea. The Portuguese have a strong fortress here, and command the town. Their chief trade is in ambergrease, slaves, silk, stuffs, and gold. Lat. 20° 5′ south, long. 35° 30′ east.

The Dutch have settlements towards the southern parts of the continent in the country called Caffraria, or the land of the Hottentots. The fine colony of which Cape Town is the capital, is well settled, and fortified. Here their ships, bound for India, usually put in and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them spirituous liquors. Cape Town has been in possession of the English ever since 1795.

The establishment which the Dutch East-India Company have made on either side of the Cape of Good Hope, the extreme southern point of that great continent which comprehends Europe, Asia and Africa, extends according to computation, 450 miles eastward and westward, and 250 towards the north, 81° 23′ east long. and 34° 29′ south lat. In this extensive domain, the population amounts to 17,000 inhabitants of European descent, and about 30,000 slaves, Africans and Asiaticks.

This country is capable of being made by the simplest means, a populous commercial colony. Its pure and temperate climate is favourable to health, longevity and population. Its soil, though not

apparently rich, is, from the genial temperature of the air, and alternate dews and sunshine, so kindly vegetative, that it nourishes with little culture, and almost spontaneously, whatever the husbandman, the botanist, the florist chooses to commit to its bosom. Thus it is calculated to produce whatever is requisite to the increase of flocks, horses and cattle ; and at the same time to yield whatever is necessary to the comfortable subsistence of the human species.

The greatest want of this country, is that of timber for building, and even for fuel. The navigable rivers are separated from each other by great distances ; but canals are more practicable here than in the low countries of Europe. The east side of the promontory, and the inland parts, are the richest, and capable of the highest cultivation. The two principal parts with regard to actual commerce, are Table Bay and False Bay, which are always safe ; so formed and sheltered, as alternately to yield security against the two prevailing winds, which are peculiar to that meridian. There are other bays very fit for navigation ; but the policy of the chartered sovereigns, the East-India Company, has drawn a veil over the true knowledge of them. The same jealousy which hides the knowledge of the ports to which we allude, prohibits the inhabitants from transporting, on any pretext, their produce and effects to the principal towns, coastwise by water. The excellent vines of the Cape, if encouraged and improved, would yield to none in taste, flavour or delicacy. Its grains are not inferior to those of Sicily. Aloes, myrtle, wax, salt and paints, it is capable of furnishing in profusion ; as also indigo, cotton and tobacco. It contains virgin copper, and copper ore, and the appearance of the soil in many places indicates the possession of the precious metals.

Families in this place generally consist of from 7 to 17 children, and some from 18 to 27. From the want of intercourse with strangers, they are all allied together with intermarriages ; without feeling however, for each other any kindred affection, and even without that sympathy and fellowship which prevail in other countries among neighbours. The females appear to be more numerous than the other sex. It is computed, that at the least, five sixth parts of the whole number of European descent (17,000) are females and male children under manhood. About one fourth part of those who are descended from Europeans reside at Cape Town, and about two fifths of all the slaves.

The people of this place are less the descendants of the Dutch, than of emigrants from France, (after the revocation of the Edict of Nantz) from all the Protestant estates in Germany, and from the Austrian Netherlands.

As there is no exportation but from Table and False Bays, wines, grain, and some other articles pay duties upon entering the towns. There is a considerable quantity of wheat shipped annually by the company to Batavia, Ceylon and Holland. Cattle and sheep, for the use of shipping, are provided by contracting farmers, who pay a duty for this exclusive privilege.

The chief justice, or fiscal, unites in his own person the three distinct branches of government ; the legislative, the judicial, and the

executive. This legislature, judge and executioner, with high powers, possesses great privileges and emoluments: He can impose and levy taxes for his own use; dispense with laws; create new crimes; compound for crimes of all denominations and complexions; and in general, dispose as he pleases of the lives and fortunes of the whole people. It is true there is a kind of controlling power, paramount to this highly privileged person; but woe to him who dares appeal to that tribunal.

Most families manufacture their own articles of wearing apparel and household furniture; so that they are only obliged to import from Europe and Asia the gross materials, and a few of the simplest articles of convenience, and still fewer of luxury. Their streets are spacious, airy, and regularly laid out at right angles; and they seem to have inherited and preserved the cleanliness of Haerlem and Delft. But there is one inconvenience which they cannot remedy with all their industry. The strong squalls of wind which often force themselves through narrow passes between the surrounding mountains, raise dust in the streets, in troublesome quantities, in spite of the frequent application of water from canals and occasional gutters.

Every house-keeper has good accomodations for boarders: But strangers are discouraged from settling there by political finesse. As the Cape of Good Hope has, for many years, been a half-way house for refreshment, out and home, travellers of quick conceptions and some genius, have had frequent opportunities of drawing the strangest medleys of characters, and of remarking the various effects of wealth and climate on the manners and passions of men. The various degrees of rank, and the different stations and circumstances of persons travelling to and from India, have furnished ample scope for observations of this kind.

There is a neat well built town, all white, rising in the midst of a desert surrounded by black and dreary mountains; or, in other words, the picture of successful industry. But its appearance towards the sea is not quite so picturesque as that of Funchal, in Madeira. The store houses of the Dutch East-India Company are all situated next the water; and the private buildings lie beyond them, on a gentle ascent. The fort which commands the road is on the east side of the town, but seems not to be of great strength; besides which there are batteries on both sides. The streets in the town are broad and regular; all the principal ones are planted with oaks, and some have in their middle a canal of running water, which, on account of its small quantity, they are obliged to husband by sluices, so that parts of it are sometimes entirely drained, and occasion no very pleasant smell. The national character of the Dutch strongly manifests itself in this particular, their settlements being always supplied with canals, though reason and common sense evidently prove their noxious influence on the health of the inhabitants, especially at Batavia.

The houses are built of brick, and many of them are white-washed on the outside. The rooms are in general lofty and spacious, and very airy, which the hot climate requires.

There is but one Calvinist church in the whole town, and that is extremely plain. It is but very lately that they have suffered even the Lutherans to build churches in Batavia or at this place; and at the present time a clergyman of that persuasion is not tolerated at the Cape, but the inhabitants are obliged to content themselves with the chaplains of Danish and Swedish East-India men, who give them a sermon, and administer the sacrament once or twice a year.

The religion of the slaves is as little regarded here as in the colonies of other European Christian states. The slaves belonging to the Company, who amount to several hundreds, are lodged and boarded in a spacious house erected for that purpose, where they are likewise kept at work.

Another great building serves as an hospital for the sailors belonging to the Dutch East-India ships, which commonly have prodigious numbers of sick on board, on their voyage from Europe towards India. The vast number of men, sometimes six, seven, or eight hundred, which these ships carry out to supply the military in India, the small room to which they are confined, and the short allowance of water and salt provisions they receive on a long voyage through the torrid zone, generally make considerable havock among them: It is therefore no uncommon circumstance at the Cape, that a ship on her passage thither from Europe loses eighty or a hundred men, and sends between two or three hundred others dangerously ill to the hospital.

There is an apothecary's shop belonging to the hospital, where the most necessary remedies are prepared, but no expensive drug is to be found there. Patients, who are able to walk, are ordered to go up and down the streets every fair morning; and all kinds of greens, pot-herbs, sallads, antiscorbuticks, are raised for their use in an adjacent garden belonging to the Company.

Almost every inferior officer of the Dutch Company's government, the members of council excepted, let their supernumerary apartments to the officers and passengers in the various English, French, Danish, and Swedish ships, which annually put in here, either on their voyage from or back to Europe.

The ground behind the town gradually rises on all sides towards the mountain, called the Table Mountain, which is the highest: The Sugar-Loaf, so named from its form; the Lion's head, Charles' Mount, or the Lion's Rump. From these mountains descend several rivulets, which fall into the different bays, as Table Bay, False Bay, &c. The higher grounds are covered with an immense variety of plants, among which are a prodigious number of shrubs. Abundance of insects of every sort, several species of lizards, land tortoises, and serpents, frequent the dry shrubbery, together with a great variety of small birds. Some antelopes, howling baboons, solitary vultures and toads, are sometimes to be met with on the Table Mountain. The view from thence is very extensive and picturesque, and all along the vallies and rivulets among these mountains, are a great number and variety of delightful plantations, of which that called Paradise is the most remarkable and enchanting.

The *Aborigines* of the country, who are called *Hottentots*, and who are of a mild and tractable disposition, have been easily reduced to the condition of obedient subjects.

The Moravians, a great part of the time since 1736 have had missionaries in this quarter. Their labours for a time were suspended, in 1795, by order of the Dutch government, as they had been once before; the benevolent spirit of christianity not agreeing with the interests of that republick, now so intimately united with the French. But this last persecution was short. As soon as the English were masters of the Colony, the mission was encouraged, a meeting-house was built for the poor Hottentots, the number of the missionaries was increased, and the good work prospers. [*Miss. Mag.*]

They are a quiet, inoffensive people, useful to the Dutch in many respects, particularly in the management of flocks and herds of cattle. They have been very much misrepresented in Europe; and it is surprising that the falsehoods which have been propagated concerning them, should so long have gained credit in the world. It is not true, that they are in the practice of eating raw flesh, or that they entwine their bodies with the entrails of cattle. They prepare their food with fire; and their clothing consists of a dressed hide, which is tied like a collar round the neck, hangs down over the shoulders near to the ground, and is broad, and it may be wrapped round the fore part of the body: Besides this, they wear another covering of skin round the loins, which reaches half way down the thighs. Sometimes they have a cap for the head, and shoes for the feet of the same materials. Their shoes are formed of a piece of hide, drawn closely about the feet with thongs of the same. The Hottentots having few conveniences for bathing, and living in a climate where they are very frequently involved in clouds of dust, have acquired habits of dirtiness; but their skins, when washed, are clear, though sallow. There is a straggling nation of Hottentots, in very inland parts of the country, who are mere savages, having neither flocks nor herds, houses, huts nor settled residence. These savages live by prey, and their abodes are caves, rocks and trees. They use very little clothing: It has been said that they are cannibals; but this has not been ascertained. They are untameable and unmanageable by any means that have been yet tried. They refuse to converse as other uncivilized nations readily do, by natural signs. They are very few in number. They make their depredations in the night.

We are informed by a late learned traveller, that the Hottentots live much in the same manner as the ancient Gauls, mentioned in Cæsar's Commentaries; residing in different herds or tribes, on the banks of rivers, and near the forests; where they form so many distinct villages and independent republicks. By means of the rivers, the country about them is fertile in the production of those roots and wild fruits on which the Hottentots in a great measure subsist; and the forests yield them the like advantages. The Hottentot villages are all circular; the cabins of which they are composed, being covered with skins, and so very low, that a man must either stoop very much, or crawl on his knees, to get into them. They serve, indeed, chiefly to contain provisions and their implements of husbandry; the owner

himself never occupying them unless when it rains: At other times, he passes his leisure hours in sleeping at the door of his hut, where he lies on his belly, and exposes his back to the sun and the weather; waking now and then to amuse himself with smoking a certain strong scented herb, which hath much the same effect as our tobacco.

The employment of the Hottentots is purely pastoral; their principal and almost only occupation being the care of their herds of sheep and kine. Of these, each village hath one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be hersdman. This charge requires many precautions, very different from those which are taken by our herdsmen, beasts of prey being numerous and fierce in the southern parts of Africa. Lions, indeed, are not very common there; but there are elephants, the rhinoceros, leopards, tigers and several kinds of wolves, more destructive than ours, together with many other furious animals that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions towards the cape, and destroy the tame cattle. To prevent these misfortunes, it is the business of the herdsman to go, or send, every day round his district, in order to discover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which case he assembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the stoutest among them arm themselves with javelins and poisoned arrows, and follow the person who may have discovered the beast, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines; the herdsman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beast to follow him out, where he is inevitably destroyed. United among themselves by the bonds of fraternal concord, the inhabitants of the same village live in constant peace. But they take cruel vengeance on the neighbouring tribes, on the first insult that is offered them. The subject of their mutual complaints is generally the stealing of a sheep or cow, and sometimes only a suspicion of it; the consequences, however, are usually very terrible, when they determine on revenge; as they take all possible means, after having made this determination, to make the aggressors suppose the injury forgotten; but no sooner do they find their dissimulation hath taken effect, in the security of the enemy, than they fall suddenly upon them with poisoned weapons, sparing neither age nor sex, but rooting out at once the whole community: Such is the method of going to war in this country.

The care of household affairs among the Hottentots belongs to the department of the females. The men, indeed, are the butchers, and prepare the meet for dressing; but the care of providing the vegetables concerns only the women. Thus the mother of a family sets out in a morning, attended by such of her children as are able to follow her, and carrying the rest in her arms or on her back. In this manner she searches the woods and river sides, for roots, pulse or fruit: of which having gotten a sufficient quantity, she returns, lights a fire on a large stone before the cabin, and, when the food is dressed, wakes her husband, who sits down to his meal with the rest of the family. The women are clothed with sheep-skins, as well as the men; wearing the wool outwards in summer, and inwards during the winter.

DAR-FUR,

IS a kingdom in the interior of Africa, recently visited by Mr. Brown, who informs, that it lies south of Egypt and Nubia. Its capital, Cobbe, stands in N. lat. 14° 11′, E. lon. 28° 8′. The tame animals in this country are camels, horses, sheep, oxen, and dogs; the wild, are lions, leopards, hyænas, wolves, jackalls, and elephants, of which there are herds of from one hundred to two thousand. Antelopes and ostriches are here very common. The number of souls in this kingdom Mr. Brown estimated at 200,000, of which about 6000 were in the capital, (Cobbe) a town two miles in length, and narrow. The inhabitants are characterised as addicted to thieving, lying, and cheating in their bargains. They are Mahometans and allow of polygamy without limitation. The women are destined to the most laborious employments. They till the ground, gather the corn, make the bread and build the houses. The chief is despotick, but can do nothing contrary to the Koran. He receives a tenth of all merchandize imported. He speaks of the soil as his own and of the people as his slaves. Such is the liberty and happiness of a state of nature, to which modern philosophists would fain reduce mankind.

MOSAMBIQUE,

IS a kingdom, on the W. side of a channel of the same name, and on the coast of Zanguebar, consisting of three islands. The principal island, called Mosambique, is not more than 3 miles in length, and half as much in breadth, and is about two miles from the continent. It was seized by the Portuguese in 1497, and they have kept possession of it ever since.

ZANGUEBAR,

IS a country on the E. coast of Africa, between 3° N. and 18° S. lat. It includes several petty kingdoms, in which the Portuguese have settlements. The inhabitants, except those converted by the Portuguese, are either Mahometans or Pagans, the latter much the most numerous. The principal territories are Mombaza, Lamo, Melinda, Quiola, Mosambique and Sofala. The Portuguese trade for slaves, ivory, gold, ostrich feathers, wax and drugs. The productions are much the same as in other parts of Africa between the tropicks.

ADEL,

IS a country of Africa, once a part of Abyssinia, but now a separate kingdom, on the east coast of Africa, at the entrance of the Red Sea, about 200 leagues in length; the principal towns are Adel,

Zeila, Auca Gurella, and Barbera. The chief traffick consists in gold dust, ivory, frankincense and slaves. The tails of their sheep are said to weigh 25lb. each.

History.] The Abyssinians, from a very ancient tradition, according to Mr. Bruce, attribute the foundation of their monarchy to Menilek, son of Solomon, by the queen of *Saba*, (Sheba) or Arab, rendered in the vulgate, the queen of the South. The annals of the Abyssinians say she was a Pagan when she left Arab, but being full of admiration at the sight of Solomon's works, she was converted to Judaism in Jerusalem, and bore him a son whom she called Menilek, and he became their first king. She returned with her son to Saba, or Arab, whom, after keeping him some years, she sent back to his father to be instructed. Solomon did not neglect his charge, and he was anointed and crowned king of Ethiopia, in the temple of Jerusalem; and at his inauguration, took the name of David; after this he returned to Arab, and brought with him a colony of Jews, among whom were many doctors of the law of Moses, particularly one of each tribe, to make judges in his kingdom, from whom the present umbra (or supreme judges, three of whom always attend the king) are said and believed to be descended. With these came also Azarias, the son of Zadok the priest; and brought with him a Hebrew transcript of the law, which was delivered into his custody, as he bore the title of nebrit, or high priest; and this charge, though the book itself was burnt with the church at Axum in the Moorish war of Adel, is still continued, as it is said, in the lineage of Azarias, who are keepers of the church of Axum at this day. All Abyssinia was thereupon converted, and the government of the church and state modelled according to what was then in use at Jerusalem.

Mr. Bruce has collected a chronological list of the princes who have reigned in that country, from the restoration of the line of Solomon, to the time he was there, in the year 1769. The kings of Abyssinia are above all laws. They are supreme in all causes, ecclesiastical and civil. The land and persons of their subjects are equally their property, and every inhabitant of their kingdom is born their slave: if he bears a higher rank, it is by the king's gift; for his nearest relations are accounted nothing better. Punishment inflicted on criminals are the cross or crucifixion, flaying alive, lapidation, plucking out the eyes: This last is inflicted usually on rebels. It is considered as a fundamental law of the land, that none of the royal family, who have any bodily defect or deformity shall be allowed to succeed to the crown; and for this purpose, any of the princes who may have escaped from the mountain of Wechne, and who are afterwards taken, are mutilated in some of their members, that thus they may be disqualified from succeeding. The crown being hereditary in one family but elective in the person, and polygamy being permitted, must have greatly multiplied these heirs and produced constant disputes, so that it was found necessary to provide a remedy for the anarchy and effusion of royal blood, which was otherwise inevitably to follow. The remedy was a humane and gentle one; they were confined in a good climate, upon a high mountain, and maintained there at the publick expense: They are taught to read and write, but

nothing else: 750 cloths for wrapping round them, 3,000 ounces of gold, which is 30,000 dollars, are allowed by the state for their maintenance.

These princes are hardly used, and in troublesome times, often put to death upon the smallest pretensions. It is said, that their revenue is sometimes so grossly misapplied, that some of them die with hunger and cold. The situation, however, is not so distressing as that of the princes of the neighbouring kingdom of Sennaar or Nubia. There, no mountain is trusted with the confinement of their princes; but as soon as the father dies, the throats of all the collaterals, and all their descendants that can be laid hold of, are cut; and this is the case with all the states in the desert, west of Sennaar.

The Portuguese are sovereigns of the greatest part of the coast, and have a number of black princes their tributaries. There are some independent princes who have extensive dominions, particularly the kings of Dahome and Widah, the most noted of any for the infamous slave trade. Upwards of 200 years have the European nations traded with Africa in human flesh, and encourage, in the Negro countries, wars, rapine, desolation, and murder, that the West-India islands, and I blush to add the United States, might be supplied with that commodity. The annual exportation of those poor unhappy Africans, for slaves, has exceeded 100,000, numbers of whom are driven down like sheep, perhaps 1,000 miles from the sea-coast. They are generally inhabitants of villages, that have been surrounded in the night by an armed force, and carried off for sale!

A sea officer lately visited all the chiefs of the negroes in the English settlements, from Santa Apollonia to Athera, which is upwards of 250 miles, and found the police and punishment of all crimes supported by the slave trade. Those who commit crimes or trespasses against their laws, are, at the decision of twelve elders, sold for slaves for the use of their government, and the support of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder, are the highest crimes, and, whenever they are detected, subject the whole family to slavery. But any individual, condemned to slavery for the crime of his relation, may redeem his own person, by furnishing two slaves in his room. Or when a man commits one of the above cardinal crimes, all the male part of his family are forfeited to slavery; if a woman, the female part is sold. "While on the coast," says he, "I saw instances of this sort so truly cruel, as made my very bosom bleed. This traffick in crimes makes the chiefs vigilant. Nor do our planters, who purchase them, use any pains to instruct them in religion, to make them amends for the oppression thus exercised on them. I am sorry to say, they are unnaturally averse to every thing that tends to it; yet the Portuguese, French, and Spaniards, in their settlements, succeed in their attempts to instruct them, as much to the advantage of commerce, as of religion. It is for the sake of Christianity, and the advantages accompanying it, that English slaves embrace every occasion of deserting to the settlements of these nations."

It is high time for the English and Americans to put an end to this most infamous of all trades, so disgraceful to the Christian name, and so repugnant to the principles of a free government.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African Islands, some lie in the Eastern or Indian Ocean, and some in the Western or Atlantick. We shall begin with those in the Indian Ocean; the chief of which are Zocotra, Babelmandeb, Madagascar, the Comora Islands, and those of Mauritius, or France and Bourbon.

ZOCOTRA.

THIS island is situated in E. lon. 53°, N. lat. 12°, thirty leagues E. of Cape Gardifoi, on the continent of Africa, and belongs to Arabia: It is eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ships used formerly to put in when they lost their passage to India. It is a populous, plentiful country, yielding most of the fruits and plants that are usually found within the tropicks, together with frankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince or Sheik, who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEB.

THE island of Babelmandeb gives name to the strait at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is situated, in E. lon. 44° 30′, N. lat. 12°, about 4 miles both from the Arabian and Abyssinian shores. The Abyssinians or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the Red Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea, is of little importance. The island is of small value, being a barren, sandy spot of earth, not five miles round.

PEMBA

IS said to be about 100 miles in circumference, governed by a king, who pays tribute to Portugal. At a considerable distance to the east are the isles of Mahé and Almaranti, interspersed with many rocks, and of small account. [*Pinkerton.*]

COMORA ISLANDS

ARE a cluster of islands in the Indian Ocean, between the coast of Zanguebar and the north part of the island of Madagascar. They

are four in number, viz. Johanna, Mayotta, Mohilla and Comora, which last is six leagues long and three wide, and gives its name to the group. It has no safe harbours. Its high mountains are richly covered with verdure and fruit trees, and give rise to numerous fertilizing streams, on which are many beautiful cascades. The vallies between the mountains are extensive, and in richness and beauty are exceeded by none in the world.

These islands produce rice, peas, yams, Indian corn, purslain, cocoa nuts, plantains, oranges, lemons, citrons, limes, pine apples, cucumbers, tamarinds, sugar canes and honey. Their animals are buffaloes, goats, tortoises, cameleons, hens, and a great variety of birds, many of which are not known in Europe.

Johanna, though not the largest, is yet, in many respects the principal island. The Arabs are settled here, and exact tribute from the natives of this and the other islands. The Arabs, about 3,000 in number, professing the Mahometan religion, are settled together in a walled town on the south-east part of the island. The town, which is the residence of the king of all the isles, contains about 900 houses, one story of 15 or 20 feet high, and thatched with cabbage-tree leaves. The town covers about ten acres. A mosque of stone, rises in its centre. The walls are about six feet high, and encompass the whole town, leaving but one place of entrance, and are mounted with 18 cannon, taken from the wreck of a French ship; but they are of no use for defence, as the inhabitants are without ammunition, and ignorant of the manner of managing them. The streets are dirty, and so narrow as to admit but two persons abreast. The drink of the inhabitants is the milk of the cocoa nut, from which they have the art of extracting an intoxicating liquor. From the sugar canes they extract molasses. The Arabs in the town, are clothed, and in some degree civilized; but the Aborigines, about 7,000 in number, who inhabit the hills, and who are often at war with the Arabs, go naked, are of a dark complexion, and stupid.

In the interior of the island is a lake, held sacred by the natives, in which are ducks, which are also venerated. All strangers who visit this lake are required to leave their guns five miles from it. The birds, thus protected, are tame, and fearlessly approach those who visit them. The Arabs, though they dare not openly oppose, yet detest this superstition.

The East-India ships often touch here for refreshment. The Arabs, some of them, speak broken but intelligible English—preserve the manners of Arabia, and are not so dark as the natives. These isles lie between 11° and 13° south latitude, and 44° and 47° east longitude. [*Capt. Ham, Walker, Grose.*]

MADAGASCAR

IS a large island in the Indian Sea, separated from the continent of Africa by a channel, about 90 leagues across in its narrowest part, called *The Channel of Mocambique*, or *Mosambique*. This island is about 800 miles in length, and from 120 to 200 in breadth. It is divided

into 28 provinces, and watered by a great number of considerable rivers, which form at their mouths many bays and gulfs, in which are found good roads and harbours.

The inhabitants believe in a Supreme Being, whom they call Zanhare, i. e. Creator of all things. They have no temples, no idols, no priests; but make sacrifices of sheep and oxen. They believe the soul immortal, but suppose the wicked and good rewarded in this life. They are a friendly, intelligent, excellent people, possessing a quick sense of honour and gratitude, far less mindful of injuries done themselves, than of those offered their family. Their hospitality is worthy of notice and imitation. The traveller, though a stranger, enters the cottage, sits down with the family, and partakes of their repast. This custom is general.

All the artizans of Europe are not found here; but they have manufactures of iron and steel. They are ingenious goldsmiths, potters, joiners, carpenters, rope-makers and weavers. Their linens are woven by women; they are very fine, and beautifully coloured. They have dancers and comedians to amuse them; and physicians to visit them when sick. These amiable people are torn from their country, their families, their parents, their children, their lovers, and sold in thousands, in the French colonies, and more cruelly treated than beasts of burden. Under the blazing sun of Bourbon, or the isle of France, the wretch toils, almost naked, with an iron collar fastened round the neck, from which rise plates of iron, forming a mask and head piece; before the mouth is a round plate of iron, in which are small holes to emit the breath; there is a place for the nose; a flat piece of iron passes through the mouth, as a bit in the horse's mouth. The skin is soon worn from the mouth, nose, face and chin. This, with the heat of the iron in a hot day, renders the torment intolerable. Their punishments are insupportable, and they gladly meet death: They often hang or poison themselves, or rush into the open ocean in a little boat.

The climate of Madagascar is healthy; the heat is not excessive, being in some parts tempered by land breezes, from sun-setting, till 10 or 11 o'clock in the morning. They live in towns and villages. The towns are surrounded by a ditch and pallisadoes, guarded by 10 or 20 soldiers. The houses of private people consist of a convenient cottage, surrounded by smaller ones for their wives and slaves. They are of wood, covered with leaves or straw. The houses of the wealthy are spacious and divided into several apartments. The princes have buildings of taste and beauty.

The oaths, which these islanders are not known to violate, are taken in a solemn, impressive manner. The most sacred is the oath of Blood. The left breast of the person engaging is opened with a razor, from which the other sucks a drop of blood, wishing anathemas on him, who shall violate, and blessings on him, who shall keep the oath. A barbarous custom has prevailed here of destroying those infants, who have any natural defect, or are born on those days, they call unlucky.

The country produces oxen, sheep, goats, and cotton in abundance. Ebony, gum guttae, cucumbers, peas, beans, rice, and citrons, are

plenty. Cardaman plants, banana, and orange trees flourish. Rock crystals, copper, silver and gold, are found here.

The population of the island by some is estimated at 2,500,000 males, by others at 4,000,000 souls. Their language is nearly the same. Their origin is wrapped in the obscurity of other times. Three races are evident; that of Qafe Ibrahim, or Abraham; these practise circumcision, and the names of Isaac, Reuben and Jacob, are familiar with them. The second race is that of Qaferamini, who have, it is supposed, been here six centuries. The third race is of the Arabian extraction, and more modern.

This island was discovered by the Portuguese in 1505. The French took possession of it in 1641, but were driven out in 1652. A considerable settlement was made here again under the French government from 1772 to 1776, by the Baron Beneyowski. He erected buildings, raised fortifications, dug canals, opened roads, exerted himself to civilize the people. He fell here, worthy a better fate. Longitude 41° 14′, to 48° 14′ east, latitude 7° 30′, to 25° 30′ south.

[*St. Pierre, Beaulieu, Beneyowski.*]

MAURITIUS, OR ISLE OF FRANCE,

IS an island in the Indian Ocean; 400 miles east of Madagascar. It was discovered by the Portuguese; but the first who settled here were the Dutch, in 1598. They called it Mauritius, in honour of prince Maurice, their stadtholder; but on their acquisition of the Cape of Good Hope, they deserted it; and it continued unsettled till the French landed here, in 1720, and gave it the name of one of the finest provinces in France. It is 150 miles in circumference. The climate is healthy; but the soil not very fertile. There are many mountains, some of which are so high, that their tops are covered with snow: They produce the best ebony in the world. The vallies are well watered with rivers, and are made very productive of cultivation, of which indigo is the principal object. The town and harbour are called Port Louis, and are strongly fortified; but in the hurricane months, the harbour cannot afford shelter for more than eight vessels. Here are large store houses, and every thing necessary for the equipment of fleets.

The number of inhabitants on the island, exclusive of the military, is 8,000 whites, and 12,000 blacks. These black slaves cultivate the soil, do all the drudgery, and are treated in the most cruel manner. In desperation, they often hang or drown themselves. More frequently, they fly to the woods, where they are hunted and shot, like beasts, by parties of pleasure, formed for the purpose!! Longitude 57° 28′ east, latitude 20° 9′ south. [*St. Pierre.*]

BOURBON

IS an island in the Indian Ocean, 60 miles long, and 45 broad. There is not a safe harbour in the island; but many good roads for

shipping. On the south-east is a volcano. It is a fertile island; producing, in particular, excellent tobacco. The French settled here in 1672, and have some considerable towns in the island; and here their India ships touch for refreshments. But the first inhabitants were pirates, who cohabited with women from Madagascar. They fixed here in 1657. Here are 60,000 blacks, and 5,000 inhabitants. It is 300 miles east of Madagascar, longitude 55° 30′ east, latitude 20° 52′ north. [*St. Pierre.*]

Far to the south lies Kerguelen's land, so called from a recent French navigator; but by Capt. Cook, the Isle of Desolation. A curious description of this region is given in the last voyage of Capt. Cook. In wildness and iron-bound sterility, it rivals New-Georgia and the southern Thule. Proceeding to the west are several other desert islands, surrounded with the floating ice of the Antarctick Ocean, and chiefly discovered by Marion in 1772. That of Tristan de Canhan is unknown to recent accounts. [*Pinkerton.*]

Leaving the eastern world and the Indies, we now proceed round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantick, an immense ocean, lying between the two grand divisions of the globe, having Europe, Asia and Africa, or the Old World, on the east; and America, or the New World, on the west. In this ocean, on the African coast, are the following islands, viz. St. Helena, Ascension, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira islands.

ST. HELENA

IS an island in the Atlantick Ocean, 20 miles in circumference, belonging to the English East-India Company. It has some high mountains, particularly one called Diana's Peak, which is covered with wood to the very top. There are other hills also, which bear evident marks of a volcanick origin; some have huge rocks of lava and a kind of half vetrified flags. Every valley is watered by a rivulet, and the island can support 3,000 head of its small cattle. The number of inhabitants does not exceed 2,000, including near 500 soldiers and 600 slaves, who are supplied with all sorts of manufactures by the company's ships, in return for refreshments. The town is small, situated in a valley, at the bottom of a bay on the south side of the island, between two steep dreary mountains; and is well defended by forts and batteries. It lies between the continents of Africa and S. America, about 1,200 miles west of the former, and 1,800 east of the latter, lon. 5° 49′ west, lat. 15° 55′ south. [*Coxe, Walker.*]

The Company's affairs are here managed by a governour, deputy-governour, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the Company, besides a publick table well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers are welcome.

ASCENSION.

THIS island is situated in 7° 40′ south lat. 600 miles north-west of St. Helena: It received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension day; and is a mountainous, barren island, about 20 miles round and uninhabited; but has a safe convenient harbour, where the East-India ships generally touch to furnish themselves with turtles or tortoises, which are very plenty here, and vastly large, some of them weighing above 100lb. each. The sailors going a shore in the night time, frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and sometimes are so cruel, as to turn many more than they use, leaving them to die on the shore.

ST. MATTHEW.

THIS is a small island, lying in 6° 1′ west lon. and 1° 30′ south lat. 300 miles to the north-east of Ascension, and was also discovered by the Portuguese, who planted and kept possession of it for some time; but afterwards deserted it. This island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there, except a small lake of fresh water.

ST. THOMAS, PRINCES' ISLAND, ANNABOA AND FERNANDO PO

ARE situated in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were first discovered by the Portuguese, and belong still to them; they furnish shipping with fresh water and provisions, as they pass by. And to the honour of the Portuguese government, and disgrace of the West-India legislatures, there are 15,000 negro Christians in St. Thomas's, instructed to read and write, who daily attend divine worship, clean and well clothed.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS.

THESE islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, over against which they lie, at the distance of 300 miles, between 23° and 26° west long. and 14° and 18° north lat. They were discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about 20 in number; but some of them being only barren, uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio are the most considerable, and are subject to the Portuguese. The air, generally speaking, is very hot, and in some of them very unwholesome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans and negroes.

St. Jago, where the Portuguese viceroy resides, is the most fruitful, best inhabited and largest of them all, being 150 miles in circumference, yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, Indian corn, cocoa nuts, oranges and other tropical fruits; but the plant of most consequence is madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Here is plenty of roots, garden stuffs, hogs, and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkies with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, or Praya, (famous for an action between an English and French squadron) situated on the east side, has a good port, and is seldom without ships, those outward bound to Guinea, or the East-Indies, from England, Holland and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the island of Mayo, or May, immense quantities of salt are made by the heat of the sun from the sea water, which at spring tides is received into a sort of pan, formed by a sand bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English drive a considerable trade for salt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels that come to load with it, which in some years amount to 100 or more. The salt costs nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several English ships come hither for a freight of asses, which they carry to Barbadoes and other British plantations. The inhabitants of this island, even the governour and priests, are all negroes, and speak the Portuguese language. The negro governour expects a small present from every commander that loads salt, and is pleased to be invited aboard their ships. The water is so clear on this coast, that an English sailor, who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The island of Fogo is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphureous exhalations; and sometimes the flame breaks forth like Ætna, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice stones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE

IS situated within cannon shot of Cape Verd, N. lat. 14° 43', W. lon. 17° 20', and was so called by the Dutch, from an island and town of the same name in Holland. It is a small spot, not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance arises from its situation for trade so near Cape Verd, and it has been therefore a bone of contention between European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the English; but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1677 subdued by the French, in whose possession it remained till the year 1759, when it was reduced by commodore Keppel, but restored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the English in a late war, but again restored at the peace of 1783.

CANARIES.

THE Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Islands, are seven in number, and situated between 12 and 19 degrees west lon. and between 27 and 29 degrees north lat. about 150 miles south-west of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuertuventura, and Langarote. These islands enjoy a pure, temperate air, and abound in the most delicious fruits, especially grapes, which produce those rich wines, which obtain the name of Canary, whereof the greatest part is exported to England, which, in time of peace, is computed at ten thousand hogsheads annually. The Canaries abound with those beautiful little birds that bear their name, and are now so common and so much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel those in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and so extremely fertile as to produce two harvests in the year. Teneriffe, (subject to Spain) the largest of these islands, next to that of Grand Canary, is about 150 miles* round, between 28° and 29° north lat. and 17° and 18° west lon. a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine and oil; though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glass observes, that in coming in with this island, in clear weather, the Peak may be easily discerned at 120 miles distance, and in sailing from it, at 150 miles. The Peak is an ascent in the form of a sugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and according to the account of Sprat, bishop of Rochester, published in the Philosophical Transactions, nearly three miles perpendicular; but lately ascertained to be only 13,265 feet.† This mountain is a volcano, and sometimes throws out such quantities of sulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richest lands into barren deserts. The principal place in this island is Laguna, the residence of the governour. The town of Santa Cruz lies on the north-east side of the island, and has a haven for shipping; the best anchorage being not more than half a mile from shore, and very deep, with a rocky bottom. The shore is bold and steep, with the Peak, which renders this island so famous, rising beyond it to the clouds.

Santa Cruz is about three quarters of a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth; the houses are strongly built of stone, and in the same fashion as those of Madeira. It has several neat churches, two of which being decorated with large, square, and lofty towers, add much to the effect of the town from the bay. There is one pretty

* "It is about 50 miles in length, and 25 in breadth, and 150 in circumference." [*Anderson's Embassy to China.*]

† "In ascending this mountain, says Mr. Anderson, we experienced three distinct changes of climate in the course of our journey. In the first stage of it the air is warm, to that succeeds intense cold, which is followed by a volcanick heat. The bottom is continual fertility, the middle is snow and frost, and the top is smoke and flames; giving the successive effects of a garden, an ice-house, and a furnace." [*Embassy to China.*]

good street, and not inconveniently paved ; but the rest answer to no other character than that of dirty lanes. There are two forts at the eastern and western end of the town, which command the bay. There are but few troops in this or any of its sister islands, and they are equally deficient in clothing, equipment, and discipline. The militia is numerous, but never embodied, or called forth, except on very particular emergencies. The town, though by no means large, is very populous ; the inhabitants are chiefly Spanish, and suffer all the disadvantages that arise from the proverbial pride and indolence of their character ; for, notwithstanding the abundant fertility of this island, which yields the greatest plenty to the smallest exertions, the general appearance of the people most evidently betrays their poverty and wretchedness. There is another fort to the west of Santa Cruz, on a very elevated point, which appears to be built with great strength, and commands a part of the bay.

The climate of this island is warm, and, like that of Madeira, not subject to change. [*Embassy to China.*]

The Canary Islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians ; but the Romans destroying that state, put a stop to the navigation on the west coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the rest of the world, until they were again discovered by the Spaniards, in the year 1405, to whom they still belong. It is remarkable, that, though the natives resembled the Africans in their stature and complexion, when the Spaniards first came among them, their language was different from that spoken on the continent ; they retained none of their customs, were masters of no science, and did not know there was any country in the world besides their own.

MADEIRAS.

THE three islands called the Madeiras are situated, according to the author of Anson's voyage, in a fine climate, in 28° 27′ north lat. and from 13° 30′ to 19° 30′ west lon. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many west of Sallee in Morocco. The largest, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattera, on account of its being formerly almost covered with wood, is about 75 miles long, 60 broad, and 180 in circumference. It is composed of one continued hill, of a considerable height, extending from east to west ; the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated and interspersed with vineyards ; and in the midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in the whole island, which is named Fonchial or Funchal, three miles in length, and one in breadth, seated on the south part of the island, at the bottom of a large bay ; towards the sea, it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is possible for a boat to land ; and even here the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it. The inhabit-

ants consist of Portuguese, mulattoes, negroes, and a few English people. The religion is Catholick. The inhabitants are courteous and polite.

Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese, in 1519; but others assert that it was first discovered by an Englishman, in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still almost the only people who inhabit it. The Portuguese, at their first landing, finding it little better than a thick forest, rendered the ground capable of cultivation by setting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing in great abundance the richest wine, sugar, the most delicate fruits, especially oranges, lemons and pomegranates; together with corn, honey and wax; it abounds also with boars and other wild beasts, and with all sorts of fowls, besides numerous groves of cedar trees, and those that yield dragon's blood, mastick, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweetmeats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This indeed is said to be the first place in the West, where that manufacture was set on foot, and from thence it was carried to the Brazils in America. The Portuguese, not finding it so profitable as at first, have pulled up the greatest part of their sugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce several sorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the island, malmsey, and tent; of all which the inhabitants make and sell prodigious quantities. No less than 20,000 hogsheads of Madeira, it is said, are yearly exported, the greatest part to the West-Indies, especially to Barbadoes, the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when exposed to the sun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is said no venomous animal can live here.

"No carriages are kept in this island, but by the governour and the British consul; the substitute for them, among the higher order of the inhabitants, is a very fine silk net, of various colours, capable of containing a person to sit in it; it is borne by two men, by means of a long pole run through the four corners, which draws the net close on each side like a purse; a silk curtain then is thrown over the pole, that entirely obscures the person who sits in this curious vehicle, which is the elegant mode of conveyance in visits of ceremony, and to the occasional entertainments of the place. These, however, are always in private houses, as there are no theatres, or any places of publick entertainment, except the publick garden, where there are frequent exhibitions of the most brilliant fire-works.

"There are very few horses in this island; mules and oxen being principally employed both for draught and burden; nor is it easy to conceive the sagacity and agility of these animals in adapting their powers to the inequalities of this very mountainous country.

"The military establishment of the Madeiras is very limited, and does not consist of more than 300 men. The native militia how-

ever, are numerous, but they are never embodied, except in time of danger and alarm. These soldiers are most wretchedly clothed; the regimental consisting of a very coarse blue jacket, with a vest and breeches of the same colour; the whole bound with a coarse yellow worsted lace, and enlivened with red facing. They wear on their heads a kind of leathern helmet; but the artillery soldiers are distinguished by hats: Their arms and accoutrements are of the worst kind, and kept in the worst order.

"The climate of Madeira is well known for its salubrious influence, as (excepting the month of January, when there are frequent rains, accompanied with violent thunder) it seldom undergoes any change of season. Those who have money, may purchase here, as in other places, all the luxuries of life; but they in general bear a very extravagant price, though the first people live in a style of great plenty and elegance. This island, however, notwithstanding its mountainous state, must be considered, altogether, as a very fertile colony; and, as a picturesque object, nothing can exceed the romantick and beautiful views it contains, and the delightful spots that are covered with gardens and vineyards." [*Embassy to China.*]

Of the two other islands, one is called Port Santo, which lies at a small distance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compass, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ships may ride with safety against all winds, except the south-west; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other island is an inconsiderable barren rock.

AZORES.

LEAVING the Madeiras, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western Islands, that are situated between 25 and 32° west lon. and between 37 and 40° north lat. 900 miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the midway between Europe and America. They are 9 in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel, or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the 15th century, by Joshua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was by stress of weather driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish Islands. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of this discovery, on which the Portuguese set sail immediately, and took possession of them, to whom they still belong, and were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All these islands enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air; but are exposed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently suffered; and also the inundations of surrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits; also in cattle, fowl and fish. It is

said that no poisonous or noxious animals breed on the Azores, and that if carried thither they will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largest, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious, and has good anchorage, but is exposed to the south-east winds. It is generally visited by their homeward bound fleets from Brazil, Africa and the East-Indies. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the governour of these islands, as well as the bishop.

ASIATICK ISLANDS.

UNDER this head we include the island of CEYLON, the MALDIVES, the ANDAMAN and NICOBAR ISLANDS, the Isles of SUNDA, or SUMATRAN CHAIN, BORNEO, the MANILLAS, CELEBEZIAN ISLES, and the SPICE ISALNDS. These lie in what is called the Oriental Archipelago.

CEYLON

IS an island in the Indian Sea, situated to the S. E. of the peninsula of India, from which it is separated by a narrow sea, about 60 miles wide; of an oval form, 80 leagues from N. to S. and where widest 45 from E. to W. This island is called, by the Arabians, Serendib. Nothing certain was known of this island before the 12th century, when it was discovered by the Portuguese, who traded and became very powerful till the middle of the 17th century, when the Dutch arrived, and by their means the Portuguese were expelled. The island is exceedingly fertile, produces several kinds of rice, and all the fruits of the Indies, but the most valuable production is that of cinnamon; the best sort of which grows only here. Other productions are ginger, pepper cardamoms, sugar, cotton, mangoes, long pepper, &c. Among the trees is one called the talipot, the trunk of which resembles a large mast crowned with long leaves at the top, one of which is said to be of sufficient magnitude to cover 15 persons; with these they make tents, and cover their houses; this tree bears neither flower nor fruit till it is old: Of the pith the inhabitants make cakes, which has the taste of bread. The ketute has leaves like a cotton tree, the bark, which is very hard, divides into threads of which they make ropes. The trunk is straight, weak, and of a moderate height, the wood is black, heavy, compact and subject to split: By wounding the trunk the inhabitants obtain a liquor refreshing, agreeable, and wholesome, but intoxicating. The bogaha is a large tree, with broad hanging leaves, continually in mo-

tion. The inhabitants of the island hold this tree in great veneration, placing their idols under them, and suppose them to be the residence of the god Buddou, or Baouth. The gorunda gouhah is a tree which bears the cinnamon. This tree, which is about the size of an olive, has leaves like the lemon or laurel tree, but not so broad, and bears white fragrant blossoms, and a yellowish fruit, like a small olive, from which they press oil like that of nutmegs. The young leaves are red, and bruised, smell like cloves. It has a double bark. Of the outer they make curious cabinets. The inner rind they peel off the tree, and cutting it in square pieces lay it abroad in the fields, where it changes its ash colour, and shrinks up into small rolls, as we find our cinnamon. After the trees are thus peeled, they are let alone for 3 years, when it is said they regain their coats. The wood is very white, and used for building. While green, they distil out of it a wholesome well scented liquor, and another from the root, which smells like the strongest camphor. The finest sort of cinnamon is taken from the youngest, or of a middle growth. Here is a coarser sort, taken from thick old trees, and a bastard sort, which grows wild, like that on the Malabar coast, but of no value. The fruit of the cinnamon tree which is ripe in September, is like an acorn, but not so fragrant as the bark ; and boiled it makes a hard white ointment, like tallow, but of better smell, which they use for aches, and burn in lamps. Here are also snake wood, betel nuts, and jackes, whose kernels are like chesnuts, and serve instead of rice when scarce. A tree yielding a white thick glutinous substance, which is used for bird lime, and when mixed with rice flour, tastes like eggs. The root tree, whose branches turn like ropes to the ground, where they take fresh root, and another springs from thence, and so on, overspreading large tracts, after the manner of the banniian tree. Among the animals may be reckoned buffaloes, hogs, goats, deer, bears, tigers monkies, jackalls, and elephants, which latter are reckoned the most valuable of the Indies. Here are several species of ants, which devour almost every thing they come near, and build up hills with so much firmness as scarcely to be levelled with pickaxes ; the poultry feed on them. Bees are of several sorts. Among the birds are peacocks, parrots, a black bird called carlos, as large as a swan, which never lights on the ground, but always sits on trees, with short legs, large head, and long bill ; partridges, woodcocks, snipes, sparrows, &c. Many serpents are found here, some of which are said to be of an uncommon size. Here are mines of gold, silver, and other metals, but only those of iron are permitted to be wrought. Precious stones are found of several sorts, as sapphires, topazes, hyacinths, turquoises, and the finest rubies in the world. The island was formerly divided into several kingdoms, but is now said to be under one monarch. The inland parts are but little known. Candi is said to be the capital ; the Dutch have long been in possession of several of the principal towns on the sea coast, but in February 1796 they all surrendered to the English. Ceylon rises from the sea on every side to the mountains, which run in chains from N. to S. The length is 280 miles, the breadth is 160. The latitude of the two extremes are between 5 degrees 50′ and 9° 51′ N. Its extremes of

longitude are 79° 50′ and 82° 10′ E. The highest and rudest tract on the island is the kingdom of Conde lida which is impervious by reason of rocks and forests, except by narrow paths, which are obstructed by gates of thorns, watched by guards. The E. side of Ceylon is defended by sand-banks and rocks. On one of its highest mountains the natives believe that Adam, the father of mankind, was created and buried.

THE MALDIVES

ARE a cluster of small islands S. W. of Ceylon in the East-Indies. The northernmost, called Head of the Isles, or Kelly, is in lon. 73° 4′ E. lat. 7° 5′ N. ; Maldivia, in which the king resides, is in lon. 75° 35′ E. lat. 4° 15′ N. They are 1000 in number according to some, 1200 according to others. Most of them are low, sandy, and barren, having only a few cocoa nuts. The inhabitants are partly Mahometans and partly Pagans ; and their chief trade is in couries, a small shell fish, whose shells serve instead of money. The society in London for propagating the Gospel maintain a few missionaries on this coast. These islands lie near each other, being separated by channels about 200 paces over, and by some not more than 30. They are about 200 leagues in length, and 35 in breadth. Days and nights are equal, the days hot, the nights cool with heavy dews. The inhabitants are handsome, of an olive complexion. Both sexes bathe every day, and new born infants are plunged several times in cold water. The common people are naked from the girdle upwards. The priests annually make the circuit of their island, and those are punished who cannot say their creed and prayers in Arabick, and construe them into their vernacular tongue. Those who neglect to repair to the place for publick worship to offer up their supplications are treated as excommunicates. No person will converse or eat with them. Another law is, that the insolvent debtor and his family become the servants of the creditor till the debt is paid. A law of this kind was enacted by the first settlers of New-England. They have schools for writing, reading, arithmetick, and mathematicks. The poor they view as the servants of God, and scorn to offer them what they do not eat themselves. Their mosques and the royal palaces are of stone. A hundred ship loads of cocoa are exported in a year ; their waters abound in fish ; no where in the Indies is a fortune easier made. Lat. 2° south to 7° north.

[*Seally, Bowen, De Laval.*]

ANDAMAN ISLANDS.

THERE are two islands of this name, *Great* and *Little Andaman*. *Great Andaman* is on the east side of the entrance into the Bay of Bengal, and is 140 miles long, and 20 broad. Its coasts are indented by deep bays, which form excellent harbours. It has many inlets and creeks, one of which runs quite through, and is navigable for small vessels. It is surrounded by small islands. The *Little Andaman* is

south of the great, and 30 leagues from Carnicobar. It is 28 miles long, and 17 broad. This has no safe harbour, but tolerable anchorage is found near its shores.

These islands in some places are lined with a smooth sandy beach, where boats may easily land, but all are in some parts rocky. All are loaded with thick forests, almost impenetrable. From the mountains pour down many rills of good water. The soil is various, a black rich mould is the most common. Some white cliffs rise on the shore, which seem originally to have been clay, but now being mixed with sand and hard as stone, probably would be useful for building. In some places are appearances of tin, and gold dust. Red wood, ebony, cotton, and many species of timber for building are found here. Here are trees affording a rich die, 30 feet in circumference. The people are the most savage of mortals. They are little, uncouth negroes.

Shortly after the Portuguese discovered the passage round the Cape of Good Hope, one of their ships, on board of which were a number of negroes, was cast away on these islands, till then uninhabited. The Europeans built a shallop and sailed to Pegu. The negroes remained, from whom the present inhabitants are descended. They live on rice, fruits, and herbs, with which they furnish ships that touch here. The men are quite naked. The women wear a fringe round their middle, not for covering but for ornament. The women do the drudgery. Their dwellings are the most wretched hovels. Three or four stakes are set in the ground, united at top, thatched with limbs and leaves of trees. An opening is left on one side through which they creep, and lie on dried leaves. Their arms are bows and arrows. They are cunning, treacherous, revengeful. The climate is milder than in Bengal. They have rains from May to November. These islands extend from latitude 10° 30′ to 13° 40′ north, and from longitude 90° 6′ to 92° 59′ east.

[*Hamilton, Symes, Colebrook.*]

THE NICOBAR ISLANDS

ARE several islands at the entrance of the gulf of Bengal. They are almost entirely uncultivated; but the cocoa nut, the mellori or lerum (a kind of bread fruit) and other tropical fruits grow spontaneously to the greatest perfection. Dogs and hogs are the principal animals. The inhabitants are few, and their indolence extreme: But they are hospitable and honest, remarkable for their punctuality and veracity. Theft, robbery and murder are unknown. They affectionately observe an annual festival in remembrance of their deceased friends. They are astonishing swimmers, overtaking ships under sail. They are tall, and well proportioned, with black eyes, black lank hair, and dark copper coloured skins. They live in little huts, having no towns, and go quite naked, except a cloth about the waist. They have neither temples nor idols; nor does there seem to be any great superiority among them.

These islands extend northward, from the north point of Sumatra. The largest of them, which gives name to the rest, has a fine harbour on the north side, in 12 or 14 fathoms water; is 40 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. Its south extremity is in longitude 94° 23′ east, latitude 8° north. [*Colebrook, Kempfer, Dampier.*]

THE ISLES OF SUNDA

EMBRACE Sumatra, Java, Balli, Lombok, Sumbava, Timor, and several smaller isles in the vicinity of these.

SUMATRA

IS the most western of the Sunda Isles. Its general direction is nearly north-west and south-east. The equator divides it into almost equal parts; the one extremity being in 5° 33′ north, the other in 5° 56′ south latitude, and Acheen Head, its north extremity, is in longitude 95° 34′ east. It is separated from Malacca, by the straits of that name, and from Java, by the straits of Sunda. It is 900 miles in length, and from 100 to 150 in breadth.

No account has been given of this island, by any Englishman, till the year 1778, when Mr. Millar (son of the celebrated botanist) gave an account of the manners of a particular district. The Battas, a people who live in the interior parts, called the Cassia country, differ from all the other inhabitants in language, manners and customs. They eat the prisoners whom they take in war, and hang up their skulls as trophies in their houses. He observes, however, that human flesh is eaten by them *in terrorem*, and not as common food; though they prefer it to all others, and speak with peculiar raptures of the soles of the feet, and palms of the hands. They expressed much surprise that the white people did not kill, much less eat, their prisoners.

From this country, the greatest part of the cassia that is sent to Europe is procured. It abounds also with the camphire trees, which constitute the common timber in use; and in these trees the camphire is found native, in a concrete form, and also in an oil less valuable. A chain of high mountains runs through its whole extent; the ranges, in many parts being double and treble; their altitude, though great, is not sufficient to occasion their being covered with snow during any part of the year. Between these ridges are extensive plains, considerably elevated above the surface of the maritime lands. In these, the air is cool; and, from this advantage, they are esteemed the most eligible portion of the country, are the best inhabited, and the most cleared from woods, which elsewhere, in general, cover both hills and vallies with constant shade. Here too are found many large and beautiful lakes, that facilitate much the communication between the different parts. The heat of the air is far from being so intense as might be expected from a country occupying the middle of the torrid zone; and it is more temperate than many re-

gions without the tropicks; the thermometer, at the most sultry hour, about two in the afternoon, generally fluctuating between 82 and 85 degrees.

The inhabitants are divided into Malays, Achenese, Battas, Lampoons and Rejangs. They are rather below the middle stature; their bulk in proportion; their limbs, for the most part, slight, but well shaped, and particularly small at the wrists and ankles. Their hair is strong and of a shining black. The men are beardless; great pains being taken to render them so, when boys, by rubbing their chins with a kind of quick-lime. Their complexion is properly yellow, wanting the red tinge that constitutes a copper or tawny colour; those of the superior class, who are not exposed to the rays of the sun, and particularly their women of rank, approaching to a degree of fairness. The greater part of the females are ugly, many of them even to disgust; yet among them are some, whose appearance is strikingly beautiful. Some of the inhabitants of the hilly parts are observed to have the swelled neck, or goiter; but they attempt no remedy for it, as these wens are consistent with the highest health.

The rites of marriage among the Sumatrans, consist simply in joining the hands of the parties, and pronouncing them man and wife, without much ceremony, excepting the entertainment which is given upon the occasion. But little apparent courtship precedes their marriages. Their manners do not admit of it; the young people of each sex being carefully kept asunder, and the girls being seldom trusted from under the wing of their mothers. The opportunities which the young people have of seeing and conversing with each other, are at the publick festivals. On these occasions, the persons who are unmarried, meet together, and dance and sing in company. It may be supposed that the young ladies cannot be long without their particular admirers. The men, when determined in their regards, generally employ an old woman as their agent, by whom they make known their sentiments and send presents to the female of their choice. The parents then interfere, and the preliminaries being settled, a feast takes place. At these festivals, a goat, a buffalo, or several, according to the rank of the parties, are killed, to entertain, not only the relations and invited guests, but all the inhabitants of the neighbouring country who choose to repair to them. The greater the concourse, the more is the credit of the host, who is generally on these occasions, the father of the girl. The customs of the Sumatrans permit their having as many wives as they can purchase, or, afford to maintain; but it is extremely rare that an instance occurs of their having more than one, and that only among a few of the chiefs. This continence they owe in some measure, to their poverty. Mothers carry their children, not on the arm, but straddling on the hip, and usually supported by a cloth which ties in a knot on the opposite shoulder. The children are nursed but little; are not confined by any swathing or bandages; and being suffered to roll about the floor, soon learn to walk and shift for themselves; when cradles are used, they swing suspended from the ceilings of the rooms. The Sumatrans are fond of cock fighting. A man who has a high opinion of his cock, will not fight him under a certain number of dollars

and a father on his death bed has been known to desire his son to take the first opportunity of matching a cock for a sum equal to his whole property, under a blind conviction of its being invulnerable.

The wild beasts of Sumatra, are tigers, elephants, rhinoceroses, bears and monkies. The tigers prove to the inhabitants, both in their journeys, and even in their domestick occupations, most destructive enemies. The number of people annually slain by these rapacious tyrants of the woods, is almost incredible; yet, from a superstitious prejudice, it is with difficulty they are prevailed upon by a large reward, which the India Company offers, to use methods of destroying them, till they have sustained some particular injury in their own family or kindred. Alligators, likewise occasion the loss of many inhabitants, frequently destroying the people as they bathe in the river, according to their regular custom, and from which the perpetual evidence of the risk attending it, cannot deter them. A superstitious idea of their sanctity, also, preserves them from molestation, although, with a hook of sufficient strength, they may be taken without much difficulty. The other animals of Sumatra are buffaloes, a small kind of horses, goats, hogs, deer, bullocks and hog-deer. This last is an animal somewhat larger than a rabbit, the head resembling that of a hog, and its shanks and feet like those of the deer. The bezoar stone, found on this animal, has been valued at 10 times its weight in gold: It is of a dark brown colour, smooth on the outside, and the coat being taken off, it appears still darker, with strings running underneath the coat; it will swim on the top of the water. If it be infused in any liquid, it makes it extremely bitter: The virtues usually attributed to this stone are cleansing the stomach, creating an appetite, and sweetening the blood. Of birds they have a greater variety than of beasts. The coo-ow, or Sumatran pheasant, is a bird of uncommon beauty. They have storks of prodigious size, parrots, dunghill fowls, ducks, the largest cocks in the world, wood-pigeons, doves and a great variety of small birds, different from ours, and distinguished by the beauty of their colours. Of their reptiles, they have lizards, flying lizards and cameleons. The islands swarm with insects, and their varieties are no less extraordinary than their numbers.

Rice is the only grain that grows in the country; they have sugar-canes, beans, peas, radishes, yams, potatoes, pumpkins and several kinds of pot herbs unknown to Europe; and here are found most of the fruits to be met with in other parts of the East-Indies in the greatest perfection. Indigo, salt-petre, sulphur, arsenick, Brazil wood, two species of the bread fruit tree, pepper, benjamin, coffee and cotton, are likewise the produce of this island, as well as cassia, of which it furnishes about 2600 pounds, besides more of the oil than can be sold. Here also is the cabbage tree and silk cotton tree; and the forests contain a great variety of valuable species of wood, as ebony, pine, sandal, eagle, or aloes, teek, machineel, and iron wood, and also the banyan tree. Bees-wax is a commodity of great importance here; and they have likewise edible bird's nests. Gold, tin, iron, copper and lead, are found in the country; and the former is as plentiful here as in any part of Asia. The English and Dutch have

factories on this island; the principal one of the former being Fort Marlborough, on the S. W. coast. The original natives of Sumatra are Pagans; but it is to be observed, that when the Sumatrans, or any of the natives of the eastern islands, learn to read the Arabick character, and submit to circumcision, they are said to become Malays; the term *Malay* being understood to mean *Mussulman*.

[*Marsden, Macdonald, Bowen, Millar.*]

JAVA

IS separated from Sumatra, by a narrow sea, called *the Straits of Sunda*, 680 miles in length from E. to W. and from 60 to 80 in breadth from N. to S. The centre of the island is mountainous, but on the coast low and marshy, which renders the air exceedingly unhealthy, especially to new comers. No Europeans have formed any establishments here except the Dutch, who have several on the coasts, the principal of which are Batavia and Bantam. The rest of the island is divided into several kingdoms, or states, which are greatly influenced by the European settlements. Little of the internal country is known. The productions are various, and valuable for commerce. Pepper grows in such quantities, that it is said the kingdom of Bantam alone can annually furnish 10,000 tons. Here are mines of gold, silver and precious stones. Among quadrupeds may be reckoned the rhinoceros, elephants, tigers, wild boars, horses, cows, deer, apes, buffaloes, sheep, civet cats, &c. with several animals unknown in Europe; among the birds are pigeons, beautiful paroquets, pea-fowls of an extraordinary size, Bantam fowls, &c. In the vegetable world are a great number of flowering trees and shrubs, remarkable for the elegance and perfumery of their flowers, fruit-trees and timber trees, whose wood is useful for building and cabinet work; cassia, or wild cinnamon, myrobolans, galangal, red saunders wood, gum benzoin, tamarinds, cocoa nuts, coffee and rice are among the productions of Java. The natives are, by themselves, said to be descended from the Chinese, but of this there can be no certainty. They are of a dark complexion, flat faces, thin short black hair, large eye brows and cheeks. The men are stout made, and are clothed with calico, wrapped round them 2 or 3 times, as likewise are the women from the knees to the arm-pits. Those who are rich have ornaments of gold, &c. Near the coast they are Mahometans; in the interior parts, Pagans. Lon. 104 to 114° 15′, E. lat. 5° 45′ to 7° 50′, S.

Batavia, the capital of this island is situated on its north coast, in a low and marshy plain, at the union of some small rivers which descend from mountains, and render the interior navigation easy: in most of the streets are canals filled with almost stagnant water; some of which canals extend into the country. The city occupies a great space, because the houses which are only one story high, are large, convenient, and airy; the streets are very wide and straight. The borders of the canals are shaded with large trees, which stop the ex-

halations of the marshy land, hinder a free circulation of air, and render it unwholesome ; this unwholesomeness is much increased by the custom of depositing the black and putrid mud on the sides of the canal to dry. Scarcely 1 in 20 Europeans who visit this place, and reside here for any length of time, return. The publick buildings are for the most part without elegance ; the church of the Cross is large and handsome ; the town house is well situated ; the hospital is convenient and large. It is surrounded with a rampart of stones or bricks, at the foot of which runs a rapid river. At the end of the town is a castle, with lofty and thick walls, well furnished with artillery, which commands the place of landing, and contains large apartments, magazines, workshops, &c. At some distance from the town are forts and redoubts, to command the canals and the roads ; but the chief defence is from its marshy situation. The harbour is the most beautiful in India ; it is large, and the bottom secure. Round the harbour and in the bay are several islands among which are Edam, whither they send criminals to hard labour ; it is about one league and a half in circumference : Purmerent, in which is a hospital : Kuyper, or Cooper, in which are magazines of rice and other merchandize : Onrust, is an island two leagues from the town, and well fortified ; here is a timber yard, where 3 or 400 carpenters are kept constantly employed, with magazines of stores to furnish vessels with whatever they may want. Batavia is said to contain within the walls 1242 Dutch houses, and 200 Chinese, and nearly as many in the suburbs ; the population is supposed to be 60,000 souls, of which 17,000 are Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans. The heat is moderated during the day by a wind which blows from the sea, and during the night the air is cooled by winds blowing from the land. The environs are spread with country houses and large gardens, covered with lofty trees, and intersected with rivers and canals ; but in the midst of cultivated lands are found marshes, bogs, and brackish waters, which produce fevers and epidemick disorders ; every countenance announces debility and languor : some houses indeed are built in situations more elevated, and where the air is more pure, but these are very rare. For the space of 10 or 12 leagues, the land is a perfect flat ; beyond this are two hills, where men seem to possess strength and colour, where the diseased readily find health, and the rich enjoy a charming retreat. This soil, so unfriendly to man, is the best for vegetation, and produces great quantities of rice, Indian corn, millet, potatoes, indigo, &c. vast plantations of the sugar cane grow almost without culture, and produce a greater quantity of juice than those of the American islands. In the year 1619, Batavia was only a village, pallisadoed round with bamboo canes, in a flat country, marshy, and subject to the inundations of a river running through it. At this time the Dutch made a settlement here, who demolished the old, and built the new town, which they called *Batavia ;* they cut canals and drains, to carry off the water upon any land floods. The bay has 17 or 18 islands, which defend the harbour, capable of containing 1000 vessels from the violence of the winds and waves ; two large piers run out half a mile into the sea, between which 100 slaves are constantly

employed in taking out the mud or soil, washed out of the town, without which, the mouth of the river would soon be choaked up; a boom crosses it below the town, which is shut up every night, and well guarded by a detachment from the main guard. Here all vessels pay toll. The ships for Europe are laden with what spices are necessary; the rest are burned. A sea breeze rises every morning at ten, to bring vessels into the bar, and a land one at ten at night, to carry them out, one from the north the other from the south. It is the residence of the governour-general of the Indies, appointed by the States of Holland every 3 years. Lon. 106 50 E. lat. 6 10 N.
[*M'Cartney, Byron, Cook.*]

BALI, OR LITTLE JAVA,

IS one of the Sunda islands, forming the N. side of the Straits of Java, through which the East-India ships sometimes return from China, but the passage is commonly very difficult on account of contrary winds. The island is 25 leagues long, and 15 wide, fertile and well peopled. The principal productions are cotton, rice, ginger and cloves. The number of inhabitants is said to be 600,000, who are black, addicted to war; and Pagans. Lon. 115° 28′, E. lat. 7° 12′ S.

Of Lombok, Sumbava and Florez, little is known.

TIMOR

IS about 200 miles long by 60 broad, between Celebes and New-Holland, S. lat. 10° 23′, and may be regarded as a kind of barrier to the spice trade. It was taken by the Dutch from the Portuguese in 1613. It abounds in sandal wood, wax and honey. Its inhabitants are reckoned the bravest in the Oriental Archipelago.

BORNEO,

IF we except New-Holland, (which of late has obtained the name of *Continent*) is the largest island in the known world, being 900 miles in length by 600 in breadth. The interior of this island is little known. A large river flows from its center, south, into the sea, forming the harbour of Bender Massin. Its shores, especially the northern, consist of swamps, covered with forest trees of numberless species and large sizes, which extend far into the island. Lofty mountains are said to rise in the central parts; many are volcanick, and cause tremendous earthquakes. [*Pennant.*] The houses are often built on posts fixed in rafts, which are moored to the shores, and on the Banjar river experience the rise and fall of the tide, a difference of 12 feet. These singular villages are moved from place to

place, according to the convenience of the inhabitants. The coasts are peopled by Malays, Moors, Macassars and Japanese. The Ourang Outang is found here, and is said to light a fire by blowing with its mouth, to broil fish and boil rice, so that man is not the only working animal. [*Pinkerton.*] The people are swarthy and go almost naked. There are Mahometans on the sea coast; but the rest are Gentoos. The East-India company had factories here; but differences arising between them and the natives, they were driven away, or murdered: however, in 1772, the English obtained a grant, from the Sooloos of the N. part of this island. The sea coast is usually overflowed half the year, and when the waters go off, the earth is covered with mud; for which reason some of the houses are built on floats, and others on high pillars. The capital, of the same name, is large and populous, with a good harbour, and seated on the N. W. side. Lon. 112 degrees 27′ E. lat. 4 degrees 55′ N. [*Bowen.*]

This island is surrounded with many smaller ones, called the *Bornean Isles.* Of these are the group of *Sooloo,* visited and described by Dalrymple. They are rich in pearls, two, it is said, having been found here, and possessed by a Bornean monarch, as large as pullet's eggs. The chief of these isles is 30 miles by 12; inhabited by a polished people, under the government of a sultan, and of the Mahometan religion. [*Pinkerton.*]

The other isles are Fawee, between the Sooloos and Borneo; Banguey, at the northern extremity; Balambangan, remarkable for a settlement attempted by the English in 1773, but abandoned either on account of the unhealthiness of the climate, or through the intrigues of the Dutch.

THE MANILLAS, OR PHILIPPINE ISLANDS,

ARE a group of isles, said to be 1100 in number, lying in the Chinese sea, 300 miles south-east of China. Manilla or Luzon is the largest and most important of these islands, being about 500 miles long, by 100, its medial breadth. A chain of high mountains crosses this island. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintudos, or painted people, and Mestes, a mixture of all these. The property of the islands is vested in the king of Spain, they having been discovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards, in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their situation is such, between the eastern and western continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with all the islands and places of the East-Indies. Two ships from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the necessaries of life, and in what is beautiful to the eye. Gold, copper and iron are among the certain products. Venison of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a particular large species of monkies, are found here in great plenty. The nest of the bird saligan affords that dissolving jelly, which is so voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers

thrive surprizingly in those islands. If a sprig of an orange or lemon tree is planted there, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; so that the verdure and luxuriancy of the soil are almost incredible. The tree amet supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane, which if cut, yields fair water enough for a draught, of which there is plenty in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 38,000 inhabitants; Pinkerton says 12,000; its port is Cavite, lying at the distance of three leagues, and defended by the Castle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the English under general Draper and admiral Cornish, who took it by storm, and humanely suffered the archbishop, who was the Spanish viceroy at the same time, to ransom the place for about a million sterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerously disowned by him and the court of Spain, so that great part of the ransom is still unpaid. The Spanish government is settled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax.

MINDANAO,

THE largest next to Manilla, and the other smaller isles, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call sultans. The sultan of Mindanao is a Mahometan. Among the Philippines is the small island of Mœctan, where that celebrated navigator, Magellan, was slain.

Though these islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature, yet they are subject to most dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the soil is pestered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of their mountains are volcanoes.

CELEBEZIAN ISLES.

OF these, Celebez or Macassar, is the principal, being 600 by 66 miles in size, and is represented as exceeding all the Asiatick isles in the sublimity and beauty of its scenery. The heat would be insupportable, but for the N. winds, and the rains, which constantly fall 5 days before and after the full moons, and during two months that the sun is nearly vertical. The fruits are ripe all the year. The natives are Mahometans, and the best soldiers in these parts. The Dutch have strong forts here, by which they keep the natives in awe. The women are handsome, but take great pains to render their noses flat. They are taught to read and write, as well as the arts of house-wifery. Their food is light, and they have but two meals in a day. It is a very delightful and fertile spot, immense herds of cattle, and extensive plantations of cocoa nut trees spread over the hills, while the

champaign is covered with houses. Lon. from 116 to 124° E. lat. from 1° 30′, N. to 5° 30′ S. [*Bowen, Bouganville.*]

Around Celebes are many small isles, as Sanguy, Shullas, Peling, Boutan and Sala, which are inhabited and governed by chiefs.

THE SPICE ISLANDS,

CALLED also the Moluccas, are not out of sight of each other, and lie all within the compass of twenty-five leagues to the south of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of east longitude, and between one degree south, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternat and Tydore. These islands produce neither corn nor rice, so that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of Sago. Their chief produce consists of cloves, mace and nutmegs, in vast quantities, which are monopolized by the Dutch with so much jealousy, that they destroy the plants, lest the natives should sell the supernumerary spices to other nations. These islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three kings subordinate to the Dutch. Ternat is the largest of these islands, though no more than thirty miles in circumference. The Boa-serpent is an inhabitant of this island, and grows to the enormous length of 30 feet; and, by its power of suction and constriction, is reported sometimes to swallow even a deer. [*Pinkerton.*] The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria, and another called fort Orange in Machian.

AMBOYNA.

THIS island, taken in a large sense, is one, and the most considerable of the Moluccas, which in fact it commands. It is situated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degrees of south latitude, and 120 leagues to the eastward of Batavia. Amboyna is about seventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garrison of 7 or 800 men, besides small forts, which protect their clove plantations, and contains 45,252 souls, of whom 17,813 are Protestants, the rest Mahometans. It is well known that when the Portuguese were driven off this island, the trade of it was carried on by the English and Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter, in first torturing and then murdering the English, and thereby engrossing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten, but must be transmitted as a memorial of Dutch infamy at that period, to all posterity. This tragical event happened in 1622.

THE BANDA, OR NUTMEG ISLANDS,

ARE situated between 127 and 128 degrees east longitude, and between four and five south latitude, comprehending the islands of Lantor, (the chief town of which is Lantor, Poleron) Rosinging,

Pooloway and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on these islands, are those of Revenge and Nassau. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows on these islands only, and they are entirely subject to the Dutch. In several islands that lie near Banda and Amboyna, the nutmeg and clove would grow, because, as naturalists tell us, birds, especially doves and pigeons, swallow the nutmeg and clove whole, and void them in the same state; which is one of the reasons why the Dutch declare war against both those birds, in their wild plantations. The great nutmeg harvest is in June and August.

GILOLO, CERAM AND BOURO,

WITH several smaller ones, may be included under the head of Spice Islands. Gilolo is about 250 miles long, by 40 broad, and abounds with oxen, buffaloes, goats, deer and wild-hogs, with a few sheep. The bread-fruit, sago tree and nutmeg, are natives of this island. The inhabitants are industrious, particularly in weaving. [*Pinkerton.*]

Ceram in size is 190 by 40 miles, flat on the sea-coast, but mountainous in the interior, producing cloves and sago. [*Pinkerton.*]

Bouro is 90 miles long by 50 broad; rising suddenly from a deep sea, being encompassed as by a wall. The civet weasel and babinusa-hog are found here—also green ebony and a kind of iron wood. [*Pinkerton.*]

When the English seized the Banda or nutmeg isles in 1796, the number of inhabitants was 5763, and the annual produce of their plantations was about 163,000 pounds of nutmegs, and 46,000 pounds of mace. The nutmeg tree grows to the size of a pear tree, and bears fruit from the age of 10 to 100 years. The fruit, when ripe, resembles in size and colour the apricot, and is shaped like a pear. When perfectly ripe, the rind over the mark opens and discovers the mace of a deep red, growing over, and covering in part the thin shell of the nutmeg, which is black. These isles were restored to the Dutch, by the treaty with France, 1801. [*Pinkerton.*]

THE KURILE ISLANDS.

THE sea which separates the southern point of the peninsula of Kamtschatka from Japan, contains a number of islands in a position from north-north-east to south-south-east, which are called the Kurile Islands. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in several of them are volcanoes and hot springs. The principal of these islands are inhabited; but some of the little ones are entirely desert and unpeopled. They differ much from each other in respect both to their situation and national constitution. The forests in the more northern ones are composed of laryx and pines; those to the southward produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In some of them are bears and foxes.

The sea otter appears on the coasts of all these islands, as well as whales, sea-horses, seals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of these islands have a great likeness to the Japanese in their manners, language and personal appearance ; others very much resemble the Kamtschadales. The northern islands acknowledge the sovereignty of the empire of Russia : but those to the south pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians discover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hospitable ; but adversity renders them timid, and prompts them to suicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an especial affection for those of their respective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they speak and pronounce it slowly. The men are employed in hunting, fishing for sea animals and whales, and catching fowl. Their canoes are made of wood that their forests produce, or that the sea casts upon their shores. The women have charge of the kitchen and make clothes. In the northern islands they sew, and make different clothes of the thread of nettles. The southern islanders are more refined and polished than the northern, and carry on a sort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles' feathers to fledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japanese utensils of metal and varnished wood, skillets, sabres, different stuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all sorts of trinkets, and small wares.

AUSTRAL ASIA.*

THIS division, and that of Polynesia, were suggested about half a century since, by the learned President De Brosses, and are adopted by Mr. Pinkerton. Under the head of *Austral Asia*, he includes the following countries:

1. New-Holland, which he calls Notasia, and the islands within twenty degrees W. and thirty degrees E. particularly the large islands that follow.
2. Papua or New-Guinea.
3. New-Britain and New-Ireland, with the Solomon Isles.
4. New-Caledonia and the New-Hebrides.
5. New-Zealand.
6. The large island, called Van Diemen's, recently discovered to be separated from New-Holland, by a strait or channel, called Bass's Strait.

NEW-HOLLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles		
Length	2730	between	112° and 154° E. lon.
Breadth	1960		11° and 39° S. lat.

IT lies south-east of the island of Java, and south of New-Guinea, in the great South Sea. For more than a century after its first discovery by the Dutch, in 1616, it was thought to be a part of a vast southern continent, the existence of which had been a favourite idea with many experienced navigators. The great extent of New-Holland, gives it an unquestionable claim to the name of Continent.

The principal Capes are Cape York, and South Cape, which form the extreme north and south points of the Continent. Between these Capes, along the eastern shore, are Cape Flattery, Cape Gloucester, Cape Townsend, Sandy Cape, Smokely Cape and Cape Howe. The most noted Bays are, Botany Bay, on the east side of the Continent, Bateman Bay, south of it, and Glass-House Bay, Harvey's, Keppel, Halifax, and Trinity Bays, all between Botany Bay and York Cape, on the eastern shore. Shark Bay lies on the west side of the Continent, about S. lat. 25°. The capacious gulf of Carpentaria,

* Austral Asia, or South Asia, and Polynesia, (implying *many islands*) are considered by Mr. Pinkerton, as two great and distinct *maritime* divisions of the globe.

discovered in 1618, lies on the north; York Cape and Arneim's land make the two points of it.

The whole eastern coast of this Continent, except the very southern point, was discovered and explored by Captain Cook, in 1770, and is called New South Wales. It is claimed by England on the old principle of prior discovery.

From want of opportunity to examine, no considerable rivers have yet been discovered; but, from the appearance of the country, it is conjectured that it is well watered. Two kinds of gum are produced here, called red and yellow gums; the former resembles *Sanguis Draconis*, but is perfectly soluble in water. It is drawn from the tree by tapping, or taken out of the veins of the wood, when dry, in which it is copiously distributed. It is a very powerful remedy in the dysentery.

The yellow gum, as it is called, is strictly resin, not being at all soluble in water; it has the resemblance of gamboge, but has not the property of staining. The plant that produces it is low and small, with long grassy leaves; but the fructification of it shoots out in a singular manner from the centre of the leaves, on a single straight stem to the height of twelve or fourteen feet. Of this stem, which is like some of the Reed class, the natives usually make their spears. The resin is generally dug up out of the soil, under the tree, not collected from it, and may perhaps be that which Talisman calls "Gum Lack of the ground."

There are a great variety of birds and animals found here, several of which, before the discovery of this place, were non descripts.*

The natives are in the lowest grade of human existence, but one degree above the monkey. They have no religion, but a confused notion of returning to the clouds at death, whence they suppose they originally fell. They believe in magick, witchcraft and ghosts. Their ardent gallantry might suit the admirers of Godwin. The courtship consists in watching the young lady's retirement, knocking her down with a club, then leading her, covered with blood, to her intended husband; after she is ravished she is called a wife.

[*Pinkerton.*]

Both sexes go always uncovered, although it is observed they suffer sometimes from the cold. Those on the borders of the sea coast subsist principally on fish. On that part of the coast which the English have invaded, the natives have retired, and, from accounts, are much distressed for provision. A kind of twine is manufactured among them, which, with their fishing nets, is very neatly made from the flax plant. This plant promises to be very valuable for the purpose of making cordage, and the finest manufactures. It grows in Norfolk Island, (a small island N. W. of Holland, on which the English are likewise making a settlement) in great plenty, and with such luxuriance as to reach the height of eight feet.

Their cutting implements are made of stone. Several figures of animals, of shields and weapons, and even of men, have been seen

* The reader will find cuts, and a description of a number of these animals and birds, in "The Voyage of Governour Philip to Botany Bay," published by John Stockdale, London, in 1790.

carved upon the rocks, roughly, indeed, but sufficiently well executed to indicate the object intended by them. On the top of the hills, is the figure of a man in the attitude assumed by them, when they begin to dance, executed in a still superior style. That the arts of imitation should thus precede in any degree those of necessity, seems to be an exception to the rules laid down in theory for the progress of invention. Though they have made no attempts towards clothing themselves, they are by no means insensible of the cold, and appear very much to dislike the rain. During a shower, they have been observed to cover their heads with pieces of bark, and to shiver exceedingly. Their method of kindling fire is probably very laborious, as they are rarely seen without a fire actually made, or a piece of burning wood, which they carry with them from place to place, and even in their canoes. The perpetual fires, which in some countries formed a part of the national religion, had perhaps no other origin than a similar inability to produce it at pleasure; and if we suppose the original flame to have been made from lightning, the fiction of its coming down from heaven will be found to deviate very little from the truth.

In May, 1787, the British government fitted out a squadron of 11 vessels, with 850 convicts, under the command of Arthur Phillip, Esq. in order to form a settlement on this continent. The situation determined upon has been named Port Jackson; south lat. 32° 52′, east lon. from Greenwich, 159° 19′ 30″. This place is about 9 miles from Botany Bay, and has a harbour capable of containing 1000 sail of the line in perfect security. A plan of a town has been regularly laid out, and from the latest accounts, the prospect was flattering to the new settlers.

On the first arrival of the English, the natives were found amicable, hospitable, unaccustomed to act with treachery, or to take the least advantage; and every precaution was taken to prevent this harmony from being interrupted; but from some disagreement with individuals, or what is more probable, a dislike of the encroachments on their territories, they appear to avoid any intercourse with their new neighbours.

The natives, like all other barbarous nations, have some customs peculiar to themselves. Governour Phillip, in the interviews he had with the natives, observed that the women in general had lost two joints from the little finger of their left hands. He was not able to find out the occasion of this mutilation, but noticed that it was confined to the females.*

The men are distinguished in a different manner: Their fingers are not mutilated, but most of them want the right front tooth in the upper jaw. They also have a custom of perforating the cartilage that divides the nostrils, and thrusting through it a long bone or stick.

* Patterson, in his travels in Africa, tells us that he met with a tribe of Hottentots, near Orange River, all of whom had lost the first joint of their little finger: the reason they gave for cutting it off was, that it was a cure for a particular sickness to which they were subject when young. It would be a curious coincidence, should it be discovered that the natives of New-Holland do it for any similar reason.

The women are not treated with much tenderness ; and are kept in great subordination by their husbands. They appear to be employed chiefly in the canoes, in which women have frequently been seen, with young children at the breast.

The inhabitants are not numerous, and are of a chocolate colour, middle stature, and very active and courageous. Their food is chiefly fish, birds of various kinds, yams, fruit, and the flesh of the Kanguroo, an animal resembling the Opossum, and peculiar to this continent. Their weapons are spears and lances of different kinds, which they throw with great dexterity. They also use shields of an oblong form, made of bark.

Mr. T. F. Palmer, a respectable gentleman, who was transported to Botany Bay by order of the British government, writes from New South Wales, to his friend as follows :

" *December* 15, 1794.——The reports you have had of this country are mostly false. I will take upon me to say, that it will soon be the region of plenty, and wants only *virtue* and *liberty* to be another America. Nature has possibly done more for this than the last. I never saw a place where a man could so soon make a fortune, and that by the fairest means—*agriculture*. The officers have already done it, and this (I can scarcely expect to be believed) in 18 months, yet it is absolutely fact ; till then, the period of ————'s government, all private industry was repressed ; every one was obliged to labour for what he hated. Governour *Grose* totally reversed the whole system : he gave land not only to officers and freemen, but to convicts ; he gave all convicts half of every five days, and the whole of Saturday. By a little longer continuance of good sense, transportation here will become a blessing. I heartily wish that all the paupers of Great-Britain could make interest to be sent here.

" To a philosophick mind it is a land of wonder and delight ; to him it is a new creation ; the variety of beasts, the fish, the birds, the reptiles, the plants, the flowers, are all new ; so beautifully grotesque, that no naturalist would believe the most faithful drawing, and it requires uncommon skill to class them."

This seems to be the language of a mind disposed to view things on the fair side, and to make the best of its situation. More recent and impartial intelligence represents the manners and morals of the colony such as might be expected in a nest of convicts. " Iniquity abounds, and those outward gross sins, which, in Europe, would render a person contemptible in the publick eye, and obnoxious to the civil law, are become fashionable and familiar. Adultery, fornication, theft, drunkenness, violence, the natural concomitants of deism and infidelity, have boldly thrown off the mask, and stalk through the colony in the open face of the sun ; so that it is no uncommon thing to hear a person say, " When I was a Christian I thought so and so." Thus the brutal vices of a convict, teach him as effectually to reject revelation, as the alluring pages of Rousseau, Pain or Voltaire.

" It is probably found necessary to execute the laws in a decisive and summary method. A murder was committed here on Tuesday evening ; the fact was discovered the next morning ; the person sus-

pected was violently seized with two others, supposed to be accomplices; a criminal court was appointed the next day: they were found guilty, and all executed the Saturday following. They are not destitute of religious instruction. A church is erected, and two clergymen belong to the Colony; besides these, several missionaries, who fled from Otaheite, have opened meetings in several places. They have also erected a house for publick worship, and a school-house, in which the children are instructed by a master recommended by the missionaries." [*Miss. Mag.*]

There is a dry shoal off the N. W. coast of New-Holland, lat. 12° 23′ S. long. 123° 55′ 45″ E. by the time-keeper, and corroborated by lunar observations. There is also a rock with five fathoms of water on each side of it, in lat. 13° 58′ S. long. 122° 20′ 45″ E. It is supposed to be the *rocks* or *dangers* of Dampier, though the situation is different.

In 1797, a ship from Bengal was wrecked on the southern shore of New-Holland. Of 17 men on board, three only reached the settlement after a journey of 80 days. On their route they discovered immense strata of coal. Important discoveries, it is expected, will be made by vessels which have been sent within a few years, for the purpose of completing the survey of the shores of this new Continent. [*Pinkerton.*]

The name of *Cumberland* county is given by the government to the settlement at *Sidney Cove*. It is about 50 miles in length, and 30 in breadth; bounded W. by Caermarthen and Lansdown Hills; N. by Broken Bay, and S. and S. W. by Botany Bay. The chief place of settlement, is at Sidney Cove, near the centre, where a town has been regularly laid out, to be built at some future period, should the country be peopled. The principal streets are to be 200 feet wide. The climate is said to be equal to the finest in Europe.

NORFOLK ISLAND

LIES in S. lat. 29°, E. long. 168° 10′, at the distance of 200 miles from New-Holland. In Feb. 1788, twenty-six persons, from the New-Holland colony, took possession of this island. The project of forming a settlement here succeeded so well, that in October following, another party joined the new settlers; and from the last advices, the settlement consisted of 44 men, and 16 women, who were supplied with 18 months provision. In that period, it was expected they would be able to cultivate the soil in such a manner as to enable them to form a granary for New-Holland.

NEW-GUINEA, OR PAPUA,

TILL the late discoveries, was thought to be the north coast of an extensive continent, and to be joined to New-Holland: But Capt. Cook discovered a strait between them which runs north-east, through which he sailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow island, ex-

tending north-east, from the second degree of south latitude to the the twelfth, and from 131° to 150° east longitude ; but in one part it does not appear to be above 50 miles broad. According to Pinkerton, it is more than 1200 miles long, by a medial breadth of about 300. The country consists of a mixture of very high hills and vallies, interspersed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, plantains, bread fruit, and most of the trees, shrubs and plants, that are found in the other South Sea Islands, and is one of the most interesting in Austral Asia, partaking of the opulence of the Moluccas, and their singular varieties of plants and animals. It affords from the sea a variety of delightful prospects. The inhabitants are black, and of hideous aspect, have woolly hair, supposed to be the effect of art, and in some parts the people have the true Malay complexion and features. In the interior is a race, called Hazaforas, who live in trees, which they ascend by a notched pole, drawing it after them to prevent surprise. The women are industrious, the men indolent. They trade with the Chinese, with whom they exchange an bergrease, tortoise shells, pearls, birds of paradise and other birds, nicely dried, for their utensils, &c.

Capt. Forrest, who visited this island, found abundance of nutmeg trees. As the Dutch possess the spice islands, these may become an object to the English, who first discovered them. [*Pinkerton.*]

At the north-west extremity of Papua, are the isles of *Waijoo*, said to contain 100,000 inhabitants, having two excellent harbours on the north side ; Salwatti, Timorlant, Arroo, remarkable seats of the birds of paradise. In political geography, the Arroo isles have been considered, since 1623, as belonging to the Dutch East-India Company, and subservient to those of Banda. [*Pinkerton.*]

NEW-BRITAIN AND NEW-IRELAND, WITH THE SOLOMON ISLES.

NEW-BRITAIN

LIES north of Papua, in the fourth degree of south latitude, 152° 19′ east longitude from Greenwich. It was supposed to be part of an imaginary continent, till Capt. Dampier found it to be an island, and sailed through a strait which divides it from New-Guinea. Capt. Carteret, in his voyage round the world, in 1767, found that it was of much less extent than it was till then imagined to be, by sailing through another strait to the north, which separates it from a long island, to which he gave the name of New-Ireland. There are many high hills in New-Britain, and it abounds with large and stately trees. The nutmeg tree is found here in abundance, also cocoa-nuts, yams, ginger, &c. The rivers swarm with fish. The vales are beautiful. The country is represented as populous, the natives resembling those of Papua. On this and the surrounding isles, are several volcanoes. [*Pinkerton.*] To the eastward of New-Britain, and in

both the above straits, are many islands, most of which are said to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

NEW-IRELAND

EXTENDS in length, from the north-east to the south-east, about 270 miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, particularly the pepper plant, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks and other birds. Here is found that singular insect, the walking leaf. The inhabitants are black, and woolly headed, like the negroes of Guinea. Some of their canoes are 90 feet long, formed from a single tree. North-westward of New-Ireland, a cluster of islands was seen by Capt. Carteret, lying very near each other, and supposed to consist of twenty or thirty in number. One of these, which is of a very considerable extent, was named NEW-HANOVER; but the rest of the cluster received the name of the ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

SOLOMON'S ISLES, OR LAND OF THE ARSACIDES,

ARE a group of islands, concerning the existence of which, there has been much dispute, lie about 1,850 Spanish leagues west of the coast of Peru, in the vicinity of New-Guinea, between 154° and 160° east longitude from Paris, and between 6° and 12° south latitude. They were first discovered by Mendana, in his first voyage, in 1567. Herrera, in his description of these islands, reckons 18 principal ones belonging to the group, from 50 to 300 leagues in circumference, beside many of a smaller size. The air of these islands is salubrious, the soil fertile, the inhabitants numerous, and of different shades from white to black. The principal of these islands are, St. Isabella, St. George, St. Mark, St. Nicolas, Florida, the Island of Palms, &c.

ST. ISABELLA

IS one of the islands of Solomon, 200 miles in circumference, in the Pacifick Ocean, 7° 30′ south latitude, about 160 leagues west of Lima, discovered by Mendana, 1567, whose inhabitants are cannibals, and worship serpents, toads and other animals. Their complexion is bronze, their hair woolly, and they wear no covering but round the waist. The people are divided into tribes, and are constantly at war with each other. Bats were seen here, which from one extremity of their wings to the other, measured five feet. Dampier, who has the reputation of exactness, says that he saw, in the small island of Sabuda, on the west coast of Papua, bats as large as young rabbits, having wings four feet in extent from one tip to the other.

NEW-HEBRIDES* AND NEW-CALEDONIA.

NEW-HEBRIDES.

THIS name was given by Capt. Cook, to a cluster of islands, the most northerly of which was seen by Quiros, the Spanish navigator, in 1606, and by him named Tierra del Espiritu Santo. From that time till Bougainville's voyage in 1768, and Capt. Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was supposed to be part of a great southern continent, called *Terra Australis incognito*. But when Capt. Cook had sailed round New-Zealand, and along the eastern coast of New-Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the Resolution, he resolved to explore those parts accurately; and accordingly, in 1774, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, he discovered several in the group, which were before unknown. The New-Hebrides are situated between the latitudes of 14° 29′, and 20° 4′ south; and between 169° 41′, and 170° 21′ east longitude. They consist of the following islands, some of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. Terra del Espiritu Santo, Malicola, St. Bartholomew, Isle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitsuntide, Abrym, Immer, Apeee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Irronan, Annatom and Tanna.

Terra del Espiritu Santo, is the western and largest of all the Hebrides, being 22 leagues long and 60 in circuit. On the west side it is high and mountainous; in many places it rises directly from the sea. Except the cliffs and beaches, it is covered with wood or laid out in plantations. The natives are naked, wearing only a girdle, with large leaves hanging to it. Their colour is dark; their hair short; their canoes small. The head of the bay of St. Philip's, and St. Jago, is in lat. 15° 22′ north.

The island next in magnitude is Malicola; it is 18 leagues in length; has a deep bay on the south-west side, which Capt. Cook named Port Sandwich. It is an island, fertile and well peopled. On the coast, the land is low, descending with a gentle slope from the hills in the centre of the island. The cocoa-nut tree, bread fruit, banana and yams, are common.

St. Bartholomew lies north of Malicola, 8 miles distant. The middle of this island is in lat. 15° 48′ south.

The Isle of Lepers lies three leagues from Aurora, in lat. 15° 22′, under the same meridian as the south-east end of Malicola. The land is very high, 18 or 20 leagues in circuit. The natives are of a dark colour, and go naked.

Aurora is eleven leagues in length, two or three broad; the surface is hilly, covered with wood; except where the natives have

* Pinkerton calls them HEBUDES.

formed plantations. Cocoa-nut trees spread themselves to the summit of the hills.

Tanna is eight leagues long, four broad. It has a remarkable volcano, the flames of which are luminous in the night; a rumbling noise attends the explosion.

The other islands of this group have nothing very remarkable to distinguish them; all are inhabited by a friendly, honest people.

[*Cook, Forster,* &c.]

NEW-CALEDONIA.

Not far distant from the New-Hebrides, and south-westward of them, lies NEW-CALEDONIA, a very large island, first discovered by Capt. Cook, in 1774. It is about 87 leagues long, but its breadth is not considerable, nor any where exceeds ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well proportioned Indians, of a swarthy or dark chesnut brown. The women are more chaste than in the other isles of the Pacifick. The houses are neat, having carved door posts, rising in form of a bee-hive; warm, but full of smoke: They dress in a slight wrapper. The hair is frizzled, not woolly, and ornamented with a comb. The beard is worn short. The island is rocky and barren, and the inhabitants subsist on roots and fish. A few leagues distant are two small islands, called the Island of Pines, and Botany Island. New-Caledonia lies between 19° 37′ and 22° 30′ south lat. and between 163° 52′ and 167° 19′ east longitude.

[*Cook, Forster, Pinkerton.*]

NEW-ZEALAND

IS an island in the Pacifick Ocean, discovered by Tasman, in 1642. He traversed the E. coast from lat. 34° to 43° S. and entered a strait; but being attacked by the natives, soon after he came to an anchor, in the place to which he gave the name of Murderer's Bay, he did not go on shore. He called the country Staten Land, in honour of the States General, though it has been generally distinguished in our maps by the name of New-Zealand.

From the time of Tasman, the whole country, except that part of the coast which was seen by him, remained altogether unknown, and was by many supposed to make part of a southern continent, till 1770, when it was circumnavigated by Captain Cook, who found it to consist of two large islands, separated by a strait 4 or 5 leagues broad, to which he gave his own name. On the W. side of this strait is Queen Charlotte's Sound, which was made a principal place of rendezvous in his subsequent voyages. These islands lie between lat. 34 and 48° S. and lon. 166 and 180° E. Along the coast many small islands are formed, and it is indented by deep bays, affording excellent shelter for shipping; and there are also several rivers capable of receiving large vessels.

Of the two islands, the southernmost is for the most part mountainous and barren. As far inland as the eye can reach, nothing appears but mountains of stupendous height, consisting of rocks that are totally naked, except where they are covered with snow; but the land bordering on the sea coast is clothed thick with wood, almost down to the water's edge. The northernmost island has a much better appearance: it is indeed not only hilly, but mountainous; yet even the hills and mountains are covered with wood, and every valley has a rivulet of excellent water. The soil of these vallies, and the plains, of which there are many overgrown with wood, is in general light, but fertile. The winters are milder than in England, and the summers not hotter, though more uniformly warm. There are forests of vast extent, full of the straightest and largest timber, fit for building of any kind. Wild celery, and a kind of cresses, grow plentifully in almost every cove. Yams, sweet potatoes and cocoas, are raised by cultivation. Captain Cook, in 1773, planted several spots of ground with European garden seeds; and, in 1777, in several of these spots, although totally neglected and overrun by weeds, were found cabbages, onions, leeks, purslain, radishes, mustard, &c. and a few fine potatoes, greatly improved by change of soil. In other places every thing had been rooted out, to make room for temporary villages.

The only quadrupeds are dogs and rats; the former are domestick, and for food; and the latter, though not numerous, seem also to be eaten. The birds, like the vegetable productions, are almost entirely peculiar to the country. Captain Cook introduced European poultry, and, on his last visit, had the satisfaction to find them increased, both in a wild and domestick state, beyond all danger of being ever exterminated.

The men are stout, well made and fleshy; but none of them corpulent, like the inhabitants of Otaheite and the Society Isles; and they are exceedingly vigorous and active. They acknowledge one supreme being, several subordinate, but have no publick place, nor visible forms of worship. The women, in general, are smaller than the men; but possessing few peculiar graces of form or person, are chiefly distinguished by the softness of their voices. The bodies of both sexes are marked with black stains, called amoco, which is the same as tattowing at Otaheite. Their dress consists of an oblong garment, about 5 feet long, and 4 broad; they bring two corners of it over their shoulders, and fasten it on the breast with the other parts, which covers the body; and about the belly it is again tied with a girdle of mat. They ornament their heads with feathers, pearl shells, bones, &c. The women sometimes wear necklaces of shark's teeth, or bunches of long beads made of bones or shells. Their houses are miserable lodging-places; and their only furniture is a few small baskets, in which they put their fishing hooks and other trifles. Their food consists chiefly of fish; and instead of bread, they eat the root of a kind of fern, which they scorch over the fire, and then beat with a stick till the bark, or dry outside, falls off. Beside their dogs, they they also contrive to kill birds; and in most parts of the northern island, they have sweet potatoes, cocoa and yams; but in the south-

ern, nothing is raised by cultivation. Their cookery consists wholly in roasting and baking, which latter is performed in the same manner as at Otaheite. The women eat in common with the men, and their method of feeding corresponds with the nastiness of their persons. The people are as reserved and modest in their behaviour and conversation, as the polite nations of Europe. From Cape Kidnappers, in lat. 39° 43′, for upward of 80 leagues to the northward, the people acknowledge one sovereign, called Teratu, and under him several subordinate chiefs, who probably administer justice, and to whom great respect is paid; but whether his authority be hereditary or delegated is uncertain. This part of the coast is much the most populous; tillage, weaving, and the other arts of peace, being here best known, and most practised. The canoes are more decorated, the plantations are more numerous, and the clothes and carving finer than any where else. In other parts, they are scattered along the coast in single families, or in larger tribes, and each in a state of hostility. For such continual wars, and the inhuman banquet that is the consequence of victory, among a people in other respects mild and gentle, perhaps no better reason can be assigned, than what at first originated in necessity, has been perpetuated by habit, and exasperated by revenge. Upon the whole, there is little room to doubt that these people are cannibals. [*Cook.*]

The New-Zealanders inter their dead: The third day after which, they believe the soul separates from the body, and an inferior divinity bears it to the clouds. They live in constant fear of their neighbours. [*Pinkerton.*] They entreated Captain Cook to destroy their enemies. They burn with revenge; and the warm body of a fallen enemy is cut to pieces, broiled and eaten. A true picture of savage life, from facts.

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.*

THIS is the last great division yet discovered of the wide expanse of Austral Asia. Its name was given by Tasman, in honour of the Dutch governour-general in the East-Indies. It is an island, 160 miles long by 80 broad; divided from New-Holland by a strait more than 30 leagues wide. Capt. Cook was here, in Jan. 1777. The country is covered with wood, and is diversified agreeably with hills and vallies. The inhabitants are naked, of common stature, slender, and black woolly hair. They smear their faces with red ointment. They prefer birds to all other food. Opossums and kangooroos are the principal animals. The trees appear to be of one kind, tall and suitable for masts. The habitations of the inhabitants are mean hovels, or large trees hollowed by fire, to the height of 6 or 7 feet.

[*Pinkerton.*]

* The northern cape of New-Holland has also this name.

In general Van Diemen's land presents a most dreary and inhospitable shore, mottled with rocks of white quartz and black basalt. Port Dalrymple is the only harbour on the north coast, which appears to be the most fertile part of the island. [*Observations on the Coast of Van Diemen's Land, by Capt. Flinden*, 1801.]

POLYNESIA.

THIS large maritime division of the globe embraces the islands in the great Pacifick Ocean, lying between 50° S. lat. and 35° N. lat. and 170° E. lon. from Greenwich, to 130° W. lon. being 5100 geographical miles in length, by 3600 in breadth. The following are its chief divisions :

1. The Pelew Isles.
2. The Ladrones.
3. The Carolines.
4. The Sandwich Isles.
5. The Marquesas.
6. Ingraham's Isles.
7. The Society Isles, so named after the Royal Society.
8. The Friendly Isles ;

Besides others, not connected with any of these groups, and but little known, and of small consequence.

THE PELEW ISLES.

THIS group of islands lies in the N. Pacifick Ocean, between 130° and 136° E. lon. and 5° and 9° N. lat. Captain Wilson, of the Antelope E. India Packet, who was wrecked here in 1783, found the natives simple in their manners, delicate in their sentiments, friendly in their disposition, and in fine, a people that do honour to the human race. The astonishment which those, who first discovered the English, manifested on seeing their colour, plainly showed, that they had never before seen a white man. The clothes of the strangers also puzzled them exceedingly ; for it seemed to be a matter of doubt with them, whether these and their bodies did not form one substance. When the captain's brother was deputed to wait upon the king, who resided on an island at some distance from that on which they had saved their lives, he accidentally pulled of his hat, at which the gazing spectators were all struck with astonishment, as if they thought it had formed a part of his head. They had no idea of the nature of powder and shot, and were exceedingly amazed on seeing its effects. Their principal arms consist of bamboo darts, from five to eight feet long, pointed with the wood of the betelnut tree ; but there are short ones for distant marks, which are thrown by means of a stick, two feet long. The chiefs wear a bone round one of their wrists, in the form of a bracelet, which being a mark of great honour, conferred by the king on officers of state, commanders, or persons, who, by val-

our, or otherwise, have greatly distinguished themselves, is never to be parted with, but with life. They are not all of the same degree, as appeared from a difference in the bone they wore. Captain Wilson was invested with the highest order of the bone. With respect to property in these islands, a man's house, or canoe is considered as his own, as is also the land allotted to him, as long as he occupies and cultivates it; but, whenever he removes with his family to another place, the ground reverts to the king, who gives it to whom he pleases. The country is well covered with timber trees, the trunks of which furnish the natives with canoes, some large enough to carry 30 men. There are but few other trees of much use to the natives. Yams and cocoanuts, being their chief articles of subsistence, are attended to with the utmost care. From the scanty produce of the country, no luxury can reign among the inhabitants in their diet, and the milk of the cocoanut is their common drink. On particular occasions, they add to their ordinary fare, certain sweetmeats, and a sweet beverage, obtained by the aid of a sirup, extracted either from the palm tree or the sugar-cane. The houses are raised about 3 feet from the ground, the foundation beams being laid on large stones, whence spring the upright supports of their sides, which are crossed by other timbers, grooved together, and fastened by wooden pins, the intermediate space being closely filled up with bamboos and palm tree leaves, platted together. The tops of the houses are thatched with bamboos and palm leaves; and the inside is without any division, forming one great room. As to domestick implements, they have little baskets, very nicely woven from slips of the plantain tree, and wooden baskets with covers, neatly carved, and inlaid with shells. No one ever stirs abroad without a basket, which usually contains some betelnut, a comb, knife, and a little twine. The best knives are made of a piece of the large mother of pearl oyster, ground narrow, and the outward side a little polished. The combs are made of the orange tree, of which there are a few of the Seville kind; the handle and teeth are fastened in the solid wood. The fishing hooks are made of tortoise shell; and twine, cord, and fishing nets, are well manufactured from the husks of the cocoanut. Of the plantain leaf, are formed mats, which serve the people as beds. They also use a plantain leaf at meals, instead of a plate; and the shell of the cocoanut, supplies the place of a cup. There are vessels of a kind of earthen ware, of a reddish brown colour, in which they boil their fish, yams, &c. A bundle of cocoanut husks serves them for a broom; and thick bamboos, with bores, 5 or 6 inches in diameter, are their buckets or cisterns. The shell of the tortoise is here remarkably beautiful; and the natives have discovered the art of moulding it into little trays or dishes, and spoons. Some of the great ladies have also bracelets of the same manufacture, and ear-rings inlaid with shells. The natives, in general, are stout, and well made, rather above the middling stature, and of a deep copper colour. Their hair is long, and generally formed into one large loose curl round their heads. The men are entirely naked; but the women wear two little aprons, one before, the other behind. Both sexes are tattooed, and have their teeth made black by art. They are very expert at swimming; and

the men are such admirable divers, that they will readily fetch up any thing from the bottom of the sea. Such an opinion, had the king of the island entertained of the English, that, on their departure, he suffered his second son, Lee Boo, to accompany them to England, where this hopeful youth, about 20 years of age, unhappily died of the small pox, in 1784. The East-India company erected a monument over his grave in Rotherhithe church-yard. These islands are encircled on the W. side by a reef of coral.

[*Wilson.*]

THE LADRONES, OR MARIAN ISLANDS.

THE Ladrones, signifyng the isles of robbers, were discovered by Magellan in 1521. Till the arrival of the Spaniards, the natives thought themselves the only people in the world, believing that the first man was made of a piece of rock, taken from a little island near Guam; but according to others, he was made of earth from the latter isle. These isles, in 1700, were very populous; Guam is 40 leagues in circumference, having 30,000 inhabitants. [*Gobien.*] A favourite occupation of the women is to die their teeth black, and their hair white. It is deemed criminal for a noble to marry a common girl. Their government is free; each avenges his own quarrels. Wars are frequent, but not sanguinary. The loss of one or two men decides the battle. Their houses are divided into four apartments, by partitions of palm leaves. Guam is the largest of these islands, but Tinian has attracted most attention from the romantick description of it in Anson's voyage. This navigator found here wild cattle, the offspring, probably, of those imported by the Spaniards for the garrison of Guam. Here are also oranges, limes, cocoanuts, and the bread fruit.

The Ladrones are fourteen or sixteen in number; 3 or 4 only are inhabited; some of them are volcanick. The inhabitants are deemed singularly skilful in naval architecture, from the structure of their flying proas. [*Pinkerton.*] They lie eighteen hundred miles E. of Canton, occupying a space of one hundred and fifty leagues in extent.

THE CAROLINES.

THIS is the most extensive range of islands in the Pacifick Ocean, and was first discovered by the Spaniards in 1686, and named after their monarch Charles II. They are about thirty in number, very populous, except 3 or 4, uninhabited. The inhabitants resemble those of the Philippines. Each isle is subject to its chief, but all respect a monarch residing at Lamureck. They believe in certain celestial spirits, who they imagine descend to bathe in a sacred lake in Fallalo. Their dead are sometimes thrown into the sea, at other times buried in graves and surrounded by a stone wall. Some of them worship, it is said, a kind of crocodile. Criminals are banish-

ed. Polygamy is practised. One chief has nine wives. Their dances are accompanied with songs, but they have no instruments of musick. They have negro slaves. Their only weapons are lances, armed with bones. Hogolen, the chief of the Caroline isles, is 90 miles long by 40 in breadth. Next in size, one third as large, is Yap, at the western extremity of the chain. [*Pinkerton.*] They extend eastward of the Pelew isles, nearly on the same parallel of latitude.

THE SANDWICH ISLES

ARE a group of islands in the S. Sea, discovered by Capt. Cook, who gave them the above name, in honour of the Earl of Sandwich, under whose administration they were first visited. They consist of 11 islands, extending in lat. from 18° 54′ to 22° 15′ N. and in lon. from 150° 54′ to 140° 26′ W. They are called by the natives Owhyhee, Mowhee, Ranai, Morotinnee, Tahowrowa, Morotoi, Wachoo, Atooi, Neeheehow, Oreehoua and Tahoora; all inhabited except Morotinnee and Tahoora. Beside these, the natives speak of another, lying W. S. W. of Tahoora; which is low and sandy, and visited only for the purpose of catching turtle and sea-fowls. As they do not know of any others, it is probable that none exist in their neighbourhood. The climate differs very little from that of the West-India islands in the same latitude. Upon the whole, perhaps, it may be more temperate; nor are there any traces of those violent winds and hurricanes which render the stormy months in the West-Indies so dreadful. There is also more rain at the Sandwich Isles, where the mountainous parts, being generally enveloped in a cloud, successive showers fall in the inland parts, with fine weather, and a clear sky, at the sea shore. Hence it is, that few of those inconveniences to which many tropical countries are subject, either from heat or moisture, are experienced here. The winds, in the winter months, are generally from E. S. E. to N. E. The tides are very regular, ebbing and flowing six hours each. The flood comes from the eastward; and it is high water at the full and change of the moon, forty-five minutes past three. Their greatest rise is two feet seven inches, and the water is always four inches higher when the moon is above the horizon, than when she is below it. The vegetable productions are nearly the same as at the other islands in this ocean. The taro root is of a superior quality. The bread fruit trees thrive not in such abundance as in the rich plains of Otaheite, but produce double the quantity of fruit. The sugar canes are of a very unusual size, some of them measuring eleven inches and a quarter in circumference, and having fourteen feet eatable. There is also a root of a brown colour, shaped like a yam, and from 6 to 10 pounds in weight, the juice of which is very sweet, of a pleasant taste, and an excellent substitute for sugar. The inhabitants are undoubtedly of the same race that possess the islands S. of the equator; and in their persons, language, customs and manners, approach nearer to the New-Zealanders than to their less distant neighbours, either to the Society or Friendly Islands. They are in general above the middle size, and

well made. They walk very gracefully, run nimbly, and are capable of bearing very great fatigue; although, upon the whole, the men are somewhat inferior, in point of strength and activity, to the Friendly Islanders, and the women less delicately formed than those of Otaheite. Their complexion is rather darker than that of the Otaheitans, and they are not altogether so handsome a people. However, many of both sexes have fine open countenances; the women in particular have good eyes and teeth, with a sweetness and sensibility of look, that render them very engaging. Their hair is of a brownish black; neither uniformly straight, like that of the American Indians; nor uniformly curling, as among the negroes of Africa. There is one peculiar characteristick of this great nation, and which is also prevalent in the Friendly Islanders, that even in the handsomest faces, there is a fulness of the nostril, without any flatness or spreading of the nose. This may probably be the effect of their usual mode of salutation, which is by pressing the ends of their noses together. The same superiority that is observed among the higher ranks, through all the other islands, is found here. The chiefs are, almost without exception, perfectly well formed; whereas the lower sort, beside their general inferiority, are subject to all the variety of make and figure that is seen in the populace of other countries. Tattooing the body is much practised here. The natives rise with the sun, and after enjoying the cool of the evening, retire to rest a few hours after sunset. Their instruments of war are spears, daggers, clubs and slings. The dagger is a weapon peculiar to themselves. It is from 1 to 2 feet long, made of heavy black wood resembling ebony, sharpened at one or both ends and secured to the hand by a string. Its use is to stab in close fight, and it is well adapted to the purpose. They have also the knife or saw, with which the New-Zealanders cut up their slaughtered enemies. For defensive armour they wear strong mats, which are not easily penetrated with such weapons as theirs.

THE MARQUESAS.

THESE islands are five in number, viz. La Magdalena, St. Pedro, La Dominica, Santa Christina and Hood's Island, situated in the S. Pacifick Ocean, between the latitude of 9° 26′ and 10° 25′ S.; and between the longitude of 138° 47′ and 139° 13′ W. They were first discovered by Mendana and Quiros, in 1595; and in 1774, Capt. Cook ascertained their situation more particularly, which before was different in different charts. La Dominica, the largest, is about 10 leagues in circuit, in lat. 9° 44′ S. Hood's Island was discovered by Capt. Cook in 1774. The inhabitants, taken collectively, are, without exception, the finest race of people in these seas; and for good shapes and regular features they perhaps surpass all nations. They are thought to be of the same origin as those of Otaheite and the Society Islands. They have hogs, fowls, plantains and other vegetables and roots; likewise a few bread fruit and cocoa trees.

INGRAHAM'S ISLES

LIE in the S. Pacifick ocean, N.N.W. of the Marquesas Islands, from 35 to 50 leagues distant, and are 7 in number, viz. *Oahoona*, or Washington; *Woaapoo*, or Adams; Lincoln; *Noobeeva*, or Federal; *Tatooetee*, or Franklin; Hancock and Knox. The names in Italick are those by which they are known to the natives. The others were given by Capt. Joseph Ingraham, of Boston, in Massachusetts, commander of the brigantine Hope of Boston, who discovered them on the 19th of April, 1791; a day remarkable in the annals of America, the revolutionary war having commenced on that day in 1775, and the first discoveries made under the flag of the United States, marked its 16th anniversary. These islands, lying between 8° 3′ and 9° 24′ S. lat. and between 140° 19′ and 141° 18′ W. lon. from Greenwich, are mostly inhabited, and appear to be generally variegated with hills and vallies, abounding with timber, and very pleasant. *Noobeeva*, or Federal Island, is represented by the natives to be the largest, most populous and productive of the whole; which, they say, are 10 in number. The people resemble those of the Marquesas islands; as do their canoes, which are carved at each end. Cotton of a superior quality grows here. The natives were friendly. Before Ingraham's discovery was known, Captain Josiah Roberts, of Boston, sailed in the ship Jefferson for the N. W. Coast; and likewise discovered these islands. He gave them different names. As these islands lie in that part of the Pacifick Ocean, through which vessels from Europe or America bound to the N. W. Coast must pass, and are not far out of their usual track, they may be visited for refreshment in case of need.

THE SOCIETY ISLES.

ALL the islands from lon. 160° W. from Greenwich, to the eastern extremity of Polynesia, may be included under the general name of Society Isles: under this head also may be included that remarkable spot called *Easter Island*.

Nature has been bountiful in uncultivated plenty, and the inhabitants are luxurious and indolent. A plantain branch is the emblem of peace, and changing names the greatest token of friendship. Their morals are differently constructed though serving the same purposes. It is customary to give their daughters to strangers who arrive amongst them; but the pairs must be 5 nights lying near each other, without presuming to take any other liberty. On the 6th evening, the father of the young woman treats his guest with food, and informs his daughter, that she must that night receive him as her husband. The stranger must not express the least dislike, should the partner allotted to him be ever so disagreeable; for this is considered as an unpardonable affront, and is punished with instant death.

OTAHEITE,

IS the *Sagitaria* of Quiros, who first discovered it in 1606, one of the Society Islands in the South Sea. It was first visited by Capt. Wallis, in 1767, and afterwards by Capt. Cook and other circumnavigators.

It consists of two peninsulas, which are connected by a low neck of land, about two miles over; the circumference of both peninsulas is somewhat more than 90 miles. The whole island is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, within which the shore forms several very excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for any number of the largest ships.

The face of the country, except that part of it which borders upon the sea, is very uneven; it rises in ridges that run up into the middle of the island, and there form mountains, that may be seen at the distance of 60 miles. Between these ridges and the sea is a border of low land extending along all the coast, except in a few places, where the ridges rise directly from the sea. This border is of different breadths, but no where more than a mile and a half. There are several rivers which precipitate their waters from the mountains.

Not the least appearance of minerals is to be found. The stones shew evident tokens of having been burned. Traces of fire are also manifest in the very clay upon the hills. It may therefore not unreasonably be supposed, that this and the neighbouring islands are either shattered remains of a continent, which were left behind when the rest were sunk by the explosion of a subterraneous fire, or have been torn from rocks under the bed of the sea, by the same cause, and thrown up in heaps to a height which the waters never reach.

The soil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is extremely rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets of excellent water, and covered with fruit trees of various kinds, some of which are of a stately growth and thick foliage, so as to form one continued wood; even the tops of the ridges, though in general bare and burnt up by the sun, are in some parts not without their produce.

The low lands between the foot of the ridges and the sea, and some of the interjacent vallies, are the only parts of the island that are inhabited. Here indeed it is populous. The houses do not form villages or towns, but are ranged along the whole border at the distance of about 50 yards from each other.

When the island was first discovered, hogs, dogs and poultry were the only tame animals; ducks, pigeons, paroquets, with a few other birds, and rats, the only wild animals. The breed of hogs has been greatly improved from Europe. Cats, dogs, goats, hens, geese, peacocks, ducks, cattle, horses and sheep have been introduced here. Beasts of prey, or noxious reptiles, there are none.

The vegetable productions are bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, banannas of 13 sorts, and all excellent; plantains, a fruit resembling an apple; sweet potatoes, yams and cocoas.

The people exceed the middle size of Europeans in stature. In their dispositions, they are brave, open and generous, without either

suspicion or treachery. Except a few traces of natural cunning, and some traits of dissimulation, equally artless and inoffensive, they possess the most perfect simplicity of character. Their actions are guided by the immediate impulse of the reigning passion. Their passions are the genuine effusions of the heart, which they have never been taught to disguise or repress, and are therefore depicted by the strongest expressions of countenance and gesture Their feelings are lively, but in no case permanent: they are affected by all the changes of the passing hour, and reflect the colour of the time, however frequently it may vary. Their vivacity is never disturbed by anxiety or care; brought to the brink of the grave by disease, or when preparing to go to battle, their faces are unclouded by melancholy or serious reflection.

Their language is soft and melodious; it abounds with vowels, and is easily prounounced. It is rich in beautiful and figurative expressions, and admits of that inverted arrangement of words, which distinguishes the ancient from most modern languages. It is so copious, that for the bread-fruit alone, they have above twenty names. Add to this, that besides the common dialect, they often expostulate in a kind of stanza or recitative.

The two peninsulas are but one kingdom. The number of inhabitants, in 1774, was estimated by Capt. Cook at 204,000. The power and strength of this and the neighbouring islands lie entirely in their navies; and all their decisive battles are fought on the water. Otaheite alone is supposed able to send out 1720 war canoes, and 68,000 able men. The chief of each district superintends the equipping of the fleet in that district; but they must all pass in review before the king, so that he knows the state of the whole before they assemble to go on service. It is said that when a bone is so shattered that a piece is missing, they insert a piece of wood between the fractured ends, which heals over in a few days.

Women are not allowed to eat with the men. The man is at full liberty to leave his wife till she becomes a mother; then he may, if he will, destroy the child. If the child be preserved, they seldom part, but the man may take another wife.

Different deities are worshipped in different parts of the island. If they see others more prosperous than themselves, they adopt their gods and reject their own. They believe the soul immortal, but have not distinct ideas of rewards and punishments. Though they are the most friendly and amiable Pagans in the world, human sacrifices are common. To atone for their sins, they murder their neighbours, offer them to their gods, and leave their bones on the sand. The London Missionary Society, in the spirit of their Divine Master, have sent a number of missionaries to this island, to St. Christiana and Tongataboo. Otaheite is in lat. 18° S. long. 15° W.

EASTER ISLAND

LIES in the Pacifick ocean; S. lat. 27° 11', W. long. 111° 55'. It is barren, and has no fresh water, except in the crater of an extin-

guished volcano. The natives are sometimes driven to the necessity of drinking sea water. They are about 2000 souls, a thievish, lewd race of mortals. Their soil is fertile ; yams, potatoes and bananas, are their principal support. They live in small communities, each party occupying one common habitation, disregarding the laws of chastity, and the solemnity of the marriage rite. One of these dwellings, which has been measured, is 310 feet long, 10 wide, and 10 high. The roof being supported by pillars of lava, the only kind of stones in the island.

THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

THESE islands were so named by Capt. Cook, in the year 1773, on account of the friendship which appeared to subsist among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to strangers.

They extend chiefly from S. W. to N. E. including the Feejee isles, those called the Isles Navigators, and several detached isles farther north. Tasman, in 1643, discovered these isles, and named the one now called Tongataboo, Amsterdam.

The plantations on some of these islands, particularly Tongataboo, are both numerous and extensive ; and enclosed by reed fences 6 feet high, which, running parallel to each other, form fine, spacious, publick roads, which would appear beautiful in countries where rural conveniences have been carried to the greatest perfection. They are, in general, highly cultivated, and well stocked with the several roots and fruits, which these islands produce ; and Capt. Cook endeavoured to add to their number, by planting Indian corn, and the seeds of melons, pumkins and the like.

Tongataboo is only about 16 miles long, by 8 broad ; it is a level tract, in a universal and surprising state of cultivation, and exhibits a picture of industry rarely to be seen in civilized countries. There is a tolerable harbour on the north side of this island.

Eooa, when viewed from the ship at anchor, formed one of the most beautiful prospects in nature ; and very different from the others of the Friendly isles, which, being low, and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them ; whereas here, the land rising gently to a considerable height, presents an extensive prospect, where groves of trees are only interspersed at irregular distances, in beautiful disorder, and all the rest is covered with grass, except near the shores, which are lined with fruit and other trees ; among which are the habitations of the natives.

The bulk of the people of these islands, it is said, are satisfied with one wife, but the chiefs have commonly several women, though one only is looked on as a mistress of the family. Though female chastity is frail enough in some, it is highly probable that conjugal fidelity is seldom violated ; as it does not appear that more than one instance of it was known to our voyagers ; and in that, the man's life, who was the cause of it, paid the forfeit for his crime. Nor were those of the better sort, who were unmarried, more liberal of

their favours, those who were, being obvious prostitutes by profession. When they are afflicted by any disorder which they deem dangerous, they cut off the joint of one of their little fingers; fondly believing that the Deity will accept of that as a sort of sacrifice, efficacious enough to procure the recovery of their health. It was supposed, from some circumstances, that though they believe in a future state, they have no notion of future rewards or punishments for the things done here. They believe in a supreme Being; but they believe also in a number of inferior ones. Every island has its peculiar god. Capt. Cook thinks he can pronounce, that they do not worship any thing that is the work of their own hands, or any visible part of the creation. They make no offering of hogs, dogs, or fruit, to the Otooa, as at Otaheite; but it is absolutely certain that even this mild, humane and beneficent people use human sacrifices! The government, as far as could be discovered, appears to approach nearly to the feudal system, formerly established all over Europe. When any person of consequence dies, his body is washed and decorated by some women, who are appointed on the occasion; and these women are not, by their customs, to touch any food with their hands for many months afterward; and it is remarkable, that the length of the time they are thus proscribed is the greater in proportion to the rank of the chief they had washed. Their great men are fond of a singular piece of luxury, which is, to have women sit beside them all night, and beat on different parts of their bodies until they go to sleep; after which, they relax a little of their labour, unless they appear likely to awake, in which case they redouble their drumming, until they are again fast asleep. These are some of the most remarkable opinions, customs, laws and ceremonies, observed at the Friendly Islands, and which we have endeavoured to collect into one point of view, for the information of our more inquisitive readers.

THE FEJEE ISLES

ARE N. W. of Tongataboo, to which they are subject. Little is known of them.

THE NAVIGATORS' ISLES,

DISCOVERED and named by Bougainville, in 1768, according to La Peyrouse, are by far the most valuable and important in this group, in regard to fertility and population. On Maouna, one of these isles, Capt. De Langle, and Lamanon, the naturalist, with nine seamen, were massacred by the natives, the captain having unadvisedly given beads to a few of the chiefs, and not to the others. The largest of these isles, called Pola, is about 40 miles long by 20 broad, according to Peyrouse. His frigates, while here, were surrounded by 200 canoes, full of different kinds of provision, fowls, hogs, pigeons and fruit. The villages are delightfully situated, in the midst of spontaneous orchards, and the huts neatly built, with rude colon-

nades, and covered with leaves of the cocoa palm. These isles produce hogs, dogs and fowls; the bread fruit, cocoa, banana, guava and orange. La Peyrouse, who had left France an ardent disciple of Rousseau, here found that savages are very different in practice, from what they are in theory, and is forced to exclaim, "I am, however, a thousand times more angry with the philosophers who extol the savages, than with the savages themselves. The unfortunate Lamanon, whom they massacred, told me, the very evening before his death, that the Indians were worthier people than us." But La Peyrouse did not know that this fanatacism of philosophy, was to occasion such sanguinary scenes in his native country, where an attempt was made to extinguish knowledge and civilization, by men who alleged the happiness of savages, as a sufficient apology for their conduct.

THE ISLE OF OYOLAVA

IS supposed by La Peyrouse to be at least equal to Otaheite, in beauty, extent, fertility and population; and that, on this, and the larger isle of Pola, and Maouna, there are 400,000 inhabitants. So abundant are provisions, that in 24 hours, 500 hogs and an immense quantity of fruit were procured. The natives are of great stature, remarkably ferocious, but ingenious and industrious. [*Pinkerton.*]

APPENDIX.

OMISSIONS.

The following should have been inserted p. 415 & 433.

Population, &c.] THE following statement of the *division, population* and *extent* of China Proper, was delivered to Lord Macartney, at his request, by Chow-ta-Zhin, a Chinese Mandarin, and is founded on authentick documents, taken from one of the publick offices in Pekin.

Provinces.	Population.	Sq. miles.	Acres.
Pe-che-lee	38,000,000	58,949	37,727,360
Kiang-nan, 2 provinces	32,000,000	92,961	59,495,040
Kiang-see	19,000,000	72,176	46,192,640
Tche-kiang	21,000,000	39,150	25,056,000
Fa-chen	15,000,000	53,480	34,227,200
Hou-pe, Hou-nan } Hou-quang	14,000,000 / 13,000,000	144,770	92,652,800
Ho-nan	25,000,000	65,104	41,666,500
Shang-tung	24,000,000	65,104	41,666,500
Shah-see	27,000,000	55,268	35,371,520
Sheu-see, Kan-sore	18,000,000 / 12,000,000	154,008	98,565,120
Se-chu-een	27,000,000	166,800	106,752,000
Canton	21,000,000	79,156	50,851,840
Quang-see	10,000,000	78,250	50,080,000
Yu-nan	8,000,000	107,961	68,100,160
Ko-ci-che-ou	9,000,000	64,554	41,314,560
Total	333,000,000	1,297,999	830,719,360

Sir George Staunton, compiler of the embassy to China, observes, on the foregoing, that " the extent of the provinces is ascertained by astronomical observations as well as by admeasurement. The number of individuals is taken in each division of a district by a tithingman, or every tenth master of a family. These returns are collected by officers residing so near as to be capable of correcting any gross errors ; and all the returns are lodged in the great register at Pekin. Though the general statement is strictly the result of those returns added to each other, which seem little liable to error, the amount of the whole is so prodigious as to stagger belief. It must, however, be recollected, that population in China, is not subject to be materially diminished by war. No private soldiers, and a few officers only, natives of the ancient provinces of China, were engaged in the conquest of Western Tartary, or in the Thibet war. Celibacy is rare,

even in the military profession among the Chinese. The number of manufacturers, whose employments are not always favourable to health, whose constant confinement to particular spots, and sometimes in a close or tainted atmosphere, must be injurious, and whose residence in towns exposes them to irregularities, bears but a small proportion to that of husbandmen in China. In general, there seem to be no other bounds to Chinese populousness, than those which the necessity of subsistence may put to it. These boundaries are certainly more enlarged than in other countries. The whole surface of the empire is, with few exceptions, dedicated to the production of food for man alone. There is no meadow, and very little pasture; nor are fields cultivated in oats, beans, or turnips, for the support of cattle of any kind. Few parks or pleasure grounds are seen, excepting those belonging to the Emperor. Little land is taken up for roads, the chief communication being by water. There are no commons or lands suffered to lie waste, by the neglect or caprice, or for the sport of great proprietors. No arable land lies fallow. The soil, under a hot and fertilizing sun, yields double crops, in consequence of adapting the culture to the soil, and supplying its defects by mixture with other earths, by manure, watering, and careful and useful industry of every kind. The labour of man is little diverted from that industry, to minister to the luxuries of the opulent and powerful, or to employments of no real use. Even the soldiers of the Chinese army, except during the short intervals of the guards which they are called to mount, or the exercises, or other occasional services which they perform, are mostly employed in agriculture. The quantity of subsistence is increased also by converting more species of animals and vegetables to that purpose than is usual in other countries. From a consideration of all these causes, the great population, asserted in this statement, will not, perhaps, appear surprising, though it appears from it that every square mile in that vast empire contains, upon an average, about one third more inhabitants, being upwards of *three hundred*, than are found upon an equal quantity of land, also upon an average, in the most populous country in Europe."

Funerals.] The following is the description of a Chinese funeral procession, observed by Sir George Staunton, passing out of one of the gates of Pekin. "The procession was preceded by several performers on solemn musick, then followed a variety of insignia, some of silken colours, and painted boards with devices and characters, displaying the rank and office of the deceased. Immediately before the corpse the male relations walked, each supported by friends, occupied in preventing them from giving way to the excesses and extravagance of grief, to which the appearance of their countenance implied that they were prone. Over the mourners were carried umbrellas with deep curtains hanging from the edges. Several persons were employed to burn circular pieces of paper, covered chiefly with tin foil, as they passed by burying-grounds and temples. These pieces, in the popular opinion, like the coin to Charon for being conveyed to the Elysian fields, are understood to be convertible in the next stage of existence, into the means of providing the necessaries of life."

Revenue.] According to Sir G. Staunton, the revenues of China amount to about 26,000,000l. sterling. From the produce of the taxes, all the civil and military expenses, and the incidental and extraordinary changes are first paid upon the spot out of the treasuries of the respective provinces where such expenses are incurred; and the balance is remitted to the imperial treasury at Pekin. This surplus, in 1792, amounted to 12,204,776l. sterling.

Army.] The total of the army, in the pay of China, including Tartars, amounted (according to the account given to the English embassy) to *one million* infantry, and *eight hundred thousand* cavalry.

ISLANDS OF CHINA.

NUMEROUS islands are scattered along the southern and eastern shores of China. *Formosa* is the largest. In 1780 it was desolated by a hurricane, and a flood, which overflowed the greater part of the island.

Hainan is in general mountainous; but the northern part is level, and produces rice. In the centre are three mines of gold.

The isles *Leoo-keoo*, between Formosa and Japan, constitute a little civilized kingdom, tributary to China. They are 36 in number; all excepting one are small. Leoo-keoo is 125 miles long. Their chronology is as ancient as any philosophist can desire. Their royal dynasties are said to have continued for 18,000 years. The people are mild, affable, gay and temperate. Their chief products are sulphur, copper, tin, shells, and pearl. [*Pinkerton.*]

GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

CONTAINING

THE NAMES AND SITUATIONS OF THE CHIEF CITIES, TOWNS, SEAS, GULFS, BAYS, STRAITS, CAPES, AND OTHER REMARKABLE PLACES IN THE KNOWN WORLD.

FROM THE MOST AUTHENTICK MAPS, CHARTS AND OBSERVATIONS.

[The Longitude is reckoned from the Meridian of London, which is 0° 5′ 37″ West of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich.]

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Lon. D. M.
Abbeville	Picardy	France	Europe	50.07 N	1.54 E
Aberdeen	Aberdeenshire	Scotland	Europe	57.22 N	1.40 W
Abo	Finland	Sweden	Europe	60.27 N	22.18 E
Acapulco	Mexico	North	America	17.10 N	101.20 W
Achem	Sumatra	East-India	Asia	5.22 N	95.29 E
Adrianople	Romania	Turkey	Europe	42.00 N	26.30 E
Adriatick sea, or Gulf of Venice	between	Italy and Turkey	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Adventure (Isle)	Pacifick	Ocean	Asia	17.05 S	144.12 W
Agde	Languedoc	France	Europe	43.18 N	3.33 E
Agen	Guienne	France	Europe	44.12 N	0.40 E
St. Agnes (lights)	Scillies	Atlantic ocean	Europe	49.56 N	6.41 W
Agra	Agra	East-India	Asia	26.43 N	76.49 E
Air	Airshire	Scotland	Europe	55.30 N	4.35 W
Aix	Provence	France	Europe	43.31 N	5.31 E
Albany	New-York	United States	America	42.48 N	73.30 W
Alby	Languedoc	France	Europe	43.55 N	2.13 E
Aleppo	Syria	Turkey	Asia	35.45 N	37.25 E
Alexandretta	Syria	Turkey	Asia	36.35 N	36.25 E
Alexandria	Lower Egypt	Turkey	Africa	31.11 N	30.21 E
ALEXANDRIA	Virginia	United States	America	38.45 N	77.10 W
Algiers	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36.49 N	2.17 E
Amboyna	Amboyna Isle	East-India	Asia	4.25 S	127.25 E
Ambrym Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	16.09 S	168.17 E
Amiens	Picardy	France	Europe	49.53 N	2.22 E
AMSTERDAM	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52.22 N	4.49 E
Amsterdam	Isle	Pacifick ocean	Asia	21.09 S	174.51 W
Ancona	March of Ancona	Italy	Europe	43.37 N	13.35 E
Angra	Tercera Isle	Atlantic ocean	Europe	38.39 N	27.07 W
ANNAPOLIS	Maryland	United States	America	39.02 N	76.40 W
Antigua (Saint John's town)	Antigua Isle	Carib. sea	N. America	17.04 N	62.04 W
Antioch	Syria	Turkey	Asia	36.30 N	36.40 E
Antwerp	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51.13 N	04.27 E
Apæ (Isle)	Pacifick	Ocean	Asia	16.46 S	168.32 E
Archangel	Dwina	Russia	Europe	64.34 N	38.59 E
Archipelago	Islands of Greece	Europe		Mediterranean Sea.	
Ascension Isle		South Atlantic Ocean		7.56 N	14.27 W
Astrachan	Astrachan	Russia	Asia	46.00 N	51.00 E
Athens	Achaia	Turkey	Europe	38.05 N	23.57 E
Augusta	Georgia	United States	America	33.39 N	82.09 W
St. Augustine	Madagascar	South India sea	Africa	23.35 S	43.13 E
St. Augustine	E. Florida	North	America	25.51 N	81.40 W
AVA	Ava	East-India	Asia	20.20 N	95 30 E
Avignon	Provence	France	Europe	43.57 N	04.53 E
Aurora (Isle)	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	15.08 S	168.22 E

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Bagdad	Eyraca Arabia	Turkey	Asia	33.20 N	43.51 E
Balafore	Orixa	East-India	Asia	21.20 N	86.05 E
Balbec	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33.30 N	37.00 E
Baldivia	Chili	South	America	39.35 S	81.10 W
Baltick sea	between	Germ. & Swed.	Europe	Atlantick Ocean.	
Baltimore	Maryland	United States	America	39.21 N	77.48 W
Barbuda Isle		Atlantic ocean	N.America	17.49 N	61.55 W
Barcelona	Catalonia	Spain	Europe	41.26 N	02.18 E
Basil, or Basle	Basil	Switzerland	Europe	47.35 N	07.34 E
Basseterre	Guadaloupe	Carib. sea	N.America	13.59 N	61.54 W
Bassora	Eyraca Arabia	Turkey	Asia	30.45 N	47.00 E
Bastia	Corsica	Italy	Europe	42.20 N	09.40 E
Batavia	Java	East-India	Asia	06.10 S	106.56 E
Bath	Somersetshire	England	Europe	51.22 N	02.16 W
Bay of Biscay	Coast of	France	Europe	Atlantick Ocean.	
Bay of Bengal	Coast of	India	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
Bayeux	Normandy	France	Europe	49 16 N	00.47 E
Bayonne	Gascony	France	Europe	45.29 N	01.25 W
Belfast	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	43.30 N	06.30 W
Belgrade	Servia	Turkey	Europe	45.00 N	21 20 E
Benecoolen	Sumatra	East-India	Asia	03.49 S	102.05 E
Bender	Bassarabia	Turkey	Europe	46 40 N	29.00 E
Bennington	Vermont	United States	N.America	42.42 N	74.10 W
Berlin	Brandenburg	Germany	Europe	52.32 N	13.31 E
Bermudas	Bermuda Isles	Atlantic ocean	N.America	32.25 N	63.23 W
Bern	Bern	Switzerland	Europe	47.00 N	07.20 E
Berwick	Berwickshire	Scotland	Europe	55.48 N	01.45 W
Bethlehem	Pennsylvania	United States	America	40.37 N	75.14 W
Bilboa	Biscay	Spain	Europe	43.26 N	03.13 W
Birmingham	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52.30 N	01.50 W
Black, *Euxine*, sea	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia		
Bokharia	Usbeck	Tartary	Asia	39.15 N	67.00 E
Bolabola	Isle	Pacifick ocean	Asia	16.32 S	151.42 W
Bologna	Bolognese	Italy	Europe	44.29 N	11.26 E
Bologne	Picardy	France	Europe	50.43 N	1.31 E
Bolscheriskoi	Siberia	Russia	Asia	52.54 N	156.42 E
Bombay	Bombay Isle	East-India	Asia	18.56 N	72.43 E
Borroughstonness	Linlithgowshire	Scotland	Europe	55.48 N	03.44 W
Boston	Lincolnshire	England	Europe	53.10 N	00.25 E
Boston	Massachusetts	United States	America	42.23.15"N	70.58 W
Bourbon Isle	South	Indian ocean	Africa	20.51 S	55.25 E
Bourdeaux	Guienne	France	Europe	44.50 N	00.29 W
Breda	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51.40 N	04.40 E
Bremen	Lower Saxony	Germany	Europe	53.25 N	08.20 E
Breslau	Silesia	Bohemia	Europe	51.03 N	17.13 E
Brest	Bretany	France	Europe	48.22 N	04.25 E
Bridgetown	Barbadoes	Atlantic ocean	N.America	13.05 N	58.03 W
Bristol	Somersetshire	England	Europe	51.33 N	02.40 W
British sea	between	Brit. & Germ.	Europe	Atlantick Ocean.	
Bruges	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51.16 N	03.05 E
Brunswick	Low. Saxony	Germany	Europe	52.30 N	10.30 E
Brussels	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	50.51 N	04.26 E
Buda	Lower	Hungary	Europe	47.40 N	19.20 E
Buenos Ayres	La Plata	Brazil	S. America	34.35 S	58.26 E
Bukarast	Walachia	Turkey	Europe	44.26 N	26.13 E
Burlington	New-Jersey	United States	America	40 08 N	75.00 W
Cabello port	Terra Firma	South	America	10.03 N	67.27 W
Cachao	Tonquin	East-India	Asia	21.30 N	105.00 E
Cadiz	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	36.31 N	6.06 W
Caen	Normandy	France	Europe	49.11 N	0.16 W
Cagliari	Sardinia	Italy	Europe	39.25 N	6.38 E
Cahors	Guienne	France	Europe	44.26 N	1.31 E
Cairo	Lower	Egypt	Africa	30.02 N	31.23 E

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Calais	Picardy	France	Europe	50.57 N	1.55 E
Calcutta	Bengal	East-India	Asia	22.34 N	88.34 E
Calao	Peru	South	America	12.01 N	76.55 W
Calmar	Smaland	Sweden	Europe	56.40 N	16.26 E
Cambray	Chambresis	Netherlands	Europe	50.10 N	3.18 E
Cambeltown	Argyleshire	Scotland	Europe	55.30 N	5.40 W
Cambodia	Cambodia	East-India	Asia	13.30 N	105.00 E
Cambridge	Cambridgeshire	England	Europe	52.12 N	0.09 E
Cambridge	Massachusetts	United States	America	42.23.28N	71.01.53 W
Canary, N. E.	Canary Isles	Atlantic ocean	Africa	28.13 N	15.33 W
Candia [Point	Candia Islands	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	35.18 N	25.23 E
Candy	Ceylon Isle	Indian ocean	Asia	7.54 N	79.00 E
Canso Port	Nova-Scotia	North	America	45.20 N	60.50 W
Canterbury	Kent	England	Europe	51.16 N	1.15 E
Canton	Canton	China	Asia	24.07 N	113.07 E
Cape Clear	Irish Sea	Ireland	Europe	51.18 N	21.10 W
— Comorin	On this side Gan.	East-India	Asia	7.56 N	78.10 E
— Finisterre	Galicia	Spain	Europe	42.51 N	9.12 W
— Florida	East Florida	North	America	24 57 N	80.30 W
— of Good Hope	Hottentots	Caffraria	Africa	34.29 S	18.28 E
— Horn	Terra del Fuego Isl.	South	America	55.58 S	67.21 W
— St. Vincent	Algarve	Portugal	Europe	37 02 N	8 57 W
— Verd		Negroland	Africa	14.45 N	17.28 W
Cardigan	Cardiganshire	Wales	Europe	52.10 N	4.38 W
Carlescroon	Schonen	Sweden	Europe	56.20 N	15.31 E
Carlisle	Cumberland	England	Europe	54.47 N	2.35 W
Carthage Ruins	Tunis	Barbary	Africa	36.30 N	9.00 E
Carthagena	Terra Firma	South	America	10.26 N	75.21 W
Carthagena	Murcia	Spain	Europe	37.37 N	1.03 W
Casan	Casan	Siberia	Asia	55.43 N	49.13 E
Caspian Sea	Russia	Tartary	Asia		
Cassel	Hesse Cassel	Germany	Europe	51.19 N	9.34 E
Castres	Languedoc	France	Europe	43.37 N	2.19 E
St. Catherine Isle	Atlantick	Ocean	S. America	27.35 S	49.12 W
Categate	between	Swed. & Denm.	Europe	Atlantick Ocean.	
Cavan	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	54.51 N	7.18 W
Cayenne	Cayenne Isle	South	America	4.56 N	52.10 W
Cette	Languedoc	France	Europe	43.23 N	3.47 E
Ceuta	Fez	Morocco	Africa	35.04 N	6.30 W
Chalons	Burgundy	France	Europe	46.46 N	4.56 E
Chandernagore	Bengal	East-India	Asia	22.51 N	88.34 E
CHARLESTON	South-Carolina	United States	America	32.45 N	79.12 W
Charlestown	Massachusetts	United States	America	42.24 N	70.58 W
Charlton	Isle	Hudson's Bay	N. America	52.03 N	79.00 W
Chartres	Orleannois	France	Europe	48.26 N	1.33 E
Cherbourg	Normandy	France	Europe	49 38 N	1.33 W
Chester	Cheshire	England	Europe	53.15 N	3.00 W
Christmas Sound	Terra del Fuego	South	America	55.21 N	69.57 W
St. Christop. Isl.	Caribbean	Sea	N America	17.15 N	62.38 W
Civita Vecchia	Patro Di S. Petro	Italy	Europe	42.05 N	11.51 E
Clerk's Isles	Atlantick	Ocean	S. America	55.05 S	34.37 W
Clermont	Auvergne	France	Europe	45.46 N	3.10 E
Colmar	Alsace	France	Europe	48 04 N	7.27 E
Cologne	Elec. of Cologne	Germany	Europe	50.55 N	7.10 E
Columbia	South-Carolina	United States	America	33.57 N	80.12 W
Constance [PLE	Suabia	Germany	Europe	47.37 N	9.12 E
CONSTANTINO-	Romania	Turkey	Europe	41.01 N	28.58 E
COPENHAGEN	Zealand Isle	Denmark	Europe	55.40 N	12.40 E
Corinth	Morea	Turkey	Europe	37.30 N	23.00 E
CORK	Munster	Ireland	Europe	51.53 N	8.23 W
Coventry	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52.25 N	1.25 W
Cowes	Isle of Wight	England	Europe	50 46 N	1.14 W

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Cracow	Little Poland	Poland	Europe	50.10 N	19.55 E
Cremsmunster	Austria	Germany	Europe	48 03 N	14.12 E
Cummin	Isle	N. Pacif. ocean	Asia	31.40 N	121 09 E
Curassou	Curassou Isle	West-India	America	11 56 N	68 20 W
Cusco	Peru	South	America	12.25 S	70.00 W
Dacca	Bengal	East-India	Asia	23.30 N	89.20 E
Damascus	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33.15 N	37.20 E
Dantzick	Polish Prussia	Poland	Europe	54.22 N	18.38 E
Dax	Gascony	France	Europe	43.42 N	0.58 W
Delft	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52.06 N	4.05 E
Delhi	Delhi	East-India	Asia	29 00 N	76.30 E
Derbent	Daghistan	Persia	Asia	41.41 N	50.30 E
Derby	Derbyshire	England	Europe	52.58 N	1.30 W
Derry	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	54.52 N	7.40 W
Dieppe	Normandy	France	Europe	49.55 N	0.59 E
Dieu	Guzerat	East-India	Asia	21.37 N	69 30 E
Dijon	Burgundy	France	Europe	47.19 N	4.57 E
Dilbengen	Suabia	Germany	Europe	48.30 N	10.19 E
Dol	Bretagne	France	Europe	48.33 N	1.41 W
Dominica	Windward Isles	West-India	America	15.18 N	61.22 W
Dover	Kent	England	Europe	51 07 N	1.13 E
Dover	Delaware	United States	America	39.10 N	75.34 W
Dresden	Saxony	Germany	Europe	51.00 N	13.36 E
Dreux	Orleannois	France	Europe	48.44 N	1.16 E
Dublin	Leinster	Ireland	Europe	53.21 N	6.01 W
Dumbarton	Dumbartonshire	Scotland	Europe	55.44 N	4.20 W
Dumfries	Dumfriesshire	Scotland	Europe	55.08 N	3.25 W
Dunbar	Haddington	Scotland	Europe	55.58 N	2.25 W
Dundee	Forfar	Scotland	Europe	56.26 N	2.48 W
Dungeness	Kent	England	Europe	50.52 N	1.04 E
Dunkirk	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51.02 N	2.27 E
Durham	Durham	England	Europe	54.48 N	1.25 W
Eaoowe Isle	Pacifick	Ocean	Asia	21.24 S	174.25 W
Easter Isle	Pacifick	Ocean	America	27.06 S	109 41 W
Eastern Ocean	betw. the N.W. of	N. America &	N.E. of Asia	N. Pacifick Ocean.	
Edenton	N. Carolina	United States	America	36.04 N	77.00 W
Edinburg	Edinburgshire	Scotland	Europe	55.57 N	3.07 W
Edystone	English Channel	England	Europe	50.08 N	4.19 W
Elbing	Prussia	Poland	Europe	54.15 N	20.00 E
Embden	Westphalia	Germany	Europe	53.25 N	7.10 E
Enatum Isle	Pacifick	Ocean	Asia	20 10 S	169.59 E
Enebrun	Dauphine	France	Europe	44.34 N	6.34 E
English Channel	between	Eng. & France	Europe	Atlantick Ocean.	
Ephesus	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	38 01 N	27.30 E
Erramanga Isle	Pacifick	Ocean	Asia	18 46 S	169.23 E
Erzerum	Turcomania	Turkey	Asia	39.56 N	42.05 E
Ethiopian Sea	Coast of	Guinea	Africa	Atlantick Ocean.	
Evreux	Normandy	France	Europe	49.01 N	1.13 E
Eustatia Town	Carib. sea	West-India	N. America	17.29 N	63.05 W
Exeter	Devonshire	England	Europe	50 44 N	3.29 W
Falkirk	Sterling	Scotland	Europe	55.58 N	3.48 W
Falmouth	Cornwall	England	Europe	50.08 N	4.57 W
Fayal Town	Azores	Atlantic ocean	Europe	38.32 N	28.36 W
Fayetteville	N. Carolina	United States	America	35.00 N	78.00 W
Ferdin. Naronka		Brazil	S. America	3.56 S	32.43 W
Ferrara	Ferrarese	Italy	Europe	44.54 N	11.41 E
Ferro (Town)	Canaries	Atlantic ocean	Africa	27.47 N	17.40 W
Ferrol	Galicia	Spain	Europe	43.30 N	8.40 W
Fez	Fez	Morocco	Africa	33.30 N	6.00 W
Florence	Tuscany	Italy	Europe	43.46 N	11.07 E
Flores	Azores	Atlantic ocean	Europe	39.34 N	30.51 W
St. Flour	Auvergne	France	Europe	45.01 N	3.10 E

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Fort St. David	Coromandel	East-India	Asia	12.05 N	80.55 E
France (Isle of)	Indian	Ocean	Africa	20.09 S	57.33 E
Francfo.on Main	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49.55 N	8.40 E
Frawenburg	Polish	Prussia	Europe	54.22 N	20.12 E
Fuego Isle	Cape Verd	Atlantic ocean	Africa	14.56 N	24.23 W
Funchal	Madeira	Atlantic ocean	Africa	32.37 N	17.01 W
Furneaux Isle	Pacifick	Ocean	Asia	17.11 S	143.01 W
GAp	Dauphine	France	Europe	44.33 N	6.09 E
Geneva	Geneva	Switzerland	Europe	46.12 N	6.05 E
GENOA	Genoa	Italy	Europe	44.25 N	8.30 E
Genes	Savoy	Italy	Europe	44.25 N	8.40 E
St. George's Isle	Azores	Atlantic ocean	Europe	38.39 N	27.55 W
St. George's Fort	Coromandel	East-India	Asia	13.04 N	80.33 E
St. Georgestown	Bermudas	Atlantic ocean	N.America	32.45 N	63.30 W
Georgetown	South-Carolina	United States	America	33.30 N	78.42 W
Ghent	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51.03 N	3.48 E
Gibraltar	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	36.05 N	5.17 W
Glasgow	Lanerkshire	Scotland	Europe	55.51 N	4.10 W
Gloucester	Gloucestershire	England	Europe	51.05 N	2.16 W
Goa	Malabar	East-India	Asia	15.31 N	73.50 E
Goat Isle	Indian	Ocean	Asia	13.55 N	120.07 E
Gombroon	Farsistan	Persia	Asia	27.30 N	74.20 E
Gomera Isle	Canaries	Atlantic ocean	Africa	28.05 N	17.03 W
Good Hope town	Hottentots	Caffres	Africa	33.55 S	18.28 E
Goree	Atlantick	Ocean	Africa	14.40 N	17.20 W
Gottenburg	Gothland	Sweden	Europe	57.42 N	11.43 E
Gottengen	Hanover	Germany	Europe	51.31 N	9.58 E
Granville	Normandy	France	Europe	48.50 N	1.32 W
Gratiosa	Azores	Atlantic ocean	Europe	39.02 N	27.53 W
Grata	Stiria	Germany	Europe	47.04 N	15.29 E
Gravelines	Fr. Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50.59 N	2.13 E
Greenock	Renfrewshire	Scotland	Europe	55.52 N	4.22 W
GREENWICH	Observatory	England	Europe	51 28.40″ N	0.05.37″ E
Gryphiswald	Pomerania	Germany	Europe	54.04 N	13.44 E
Guadaloupe	Caribbean	Sea	N.America	15.59 N	61.54 W
Guam	Ladrone Isles	East-India	Asia	14.00 N	140.30 E
Gulf of Bothnia	Coast of	Sweden	Europe	Baltick Sea.	
—of California	between	Califor.&Mex.	N.America	Pacifick Ocean.	
—of Finland	between	Swed.& Russia	Europe	Baltick Sea.	
—of St.Lawrence	Coast of	New-Brunsw.	N.America	Atlantick Ocean.	
—of Mexico	Coast of	Mexico	N.America	Atlantick Ocean.	
—of Ormus	between	Persia&Arabi.	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
—of Persia	between	Persia&Arabi.	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
—of Venice	between	Italy &Turkey	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
HAerlem	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52.20 N	4.10 E
Hague	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52.04 N	4.22 E
Hamburg	Holstein	Germany	Europe	53.34 N	9.55 E
Halifax	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53.45 N	1.52 W
HALIFAX	Nova-Scotia	North	America	44.40 N	63.15 W
Hanover	Saxony	Germany	Europe	52.32 N	9.35 E
Hartford	Connecticut	United States	America	41.50 N	72.50 W
Hastings	Sussex	England	Europe	50.52 N	04.06 E
Havannah	Cuba	Island	N.America	23.11 N	82.13 W
Havre de Grace	Normandy	France	Europe	49.29 N	0.10 E
La Heese	Dutch Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51.25 N	4.50 E
St. Helena	South	Atlantic ocean	Africa	15.55 S	5.44 W
Hellespont	Medi. & Black S.	Europe and	Asia		
Hernosand	W. Bothnia	Sweden	Europe	62.38 N	17.58 E
Hereford	Herefordshire	England	Europe	52.06 N	2.38 E
Hervey's Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	19.17 S	153.43 W
Hoai Nagham	Kian Nan	China	Asia	33.34 N	118.54 E

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
La Hogue Cape	Normandy	France	Europe	49.44 N	1.51 W
Hood's Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	9.26 S	138.47 W
Hoogstraten	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51.24 N	4.52 E
Howe's Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	16.46 S	154.01 W
Haubine Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	16.44 S	151.01 W
Hudson's Bay	Coast of	Labrador	N.America	N Atlantick Ocean.	
Hudson House	New-Britain	North	America	50.00 N	160.27 W
Hull	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53.45 N	0.12 W
JAkutskoi	Siberia	Russia	Asia	62.01 N	129.52 E
Janeiro (Rio)		Brazil	S. America	22.54 S	42.38 W
Jassay	Moldavia	Turkey	Europe	47.08 N	27.34 E
Java Head	Java Isle	East-India	Asia	6.49 S	106.55 E
Jeddo	Japan Isle	East-India	Asia	36.20 N	139.00 E
Jerusalem	Palestine	Turkey	Asia	31.55 N	35.25 E
Immer Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	19.16 S	169.51 E
Indian Ocean		Coast of India	Asia		
Ingolstadt	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48.45 N	11.27 E
Inverness	Invernesshire	Scotland	Europe	57.33 N	4.02 W
St. John's Town	Antigua	Leeward Isles	N.America	17.04 N	62.04 E
St. John's Town	Newfoundland	North	America	47.32 N	52.21 W
St. Joseph's	California	Mexico	N.America	23.03 N	109.37 W
Irish Sea between	G. Britain and	Ireland, Euro.	Atl. ocean		
Irrauame Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	19.31 S	107.26 E
Islamabad	Bengal	East-India	Asia	22.20 N	91.50 E
Isle of Pines	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	22.38 S	167.43 E
ISPAHAN	Irac Agem	Persia	Asia	32.25 N	52.55 E
Isthmus of Suez joins Africa to Asia.					
——— of Corinth, joins the Morea to Greece.			Europe.		
——— of Panama, joins North and S. America.					
——— of Malacca, joins Malacca to Farther India, Asia.					
Ivica Isle	Mediterra. Sea	Italy	Europe	38.50 N	1.40 E
Judda	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	21.29 N	49.27 E
Juthia	Siam	East-India	Asia	14.18 N	100.55 E
KAmtschatka	Siberia	Russia	Asia	57.10 N	163.00 E
Kedgere	Bengal	East-India	Asia	21.48 N	88.55 E
Kelso	Roxboro'shire	Scotland	Europe	55.38 N	02.12 W
Kilmernock	Airshire	Scotland	Europe	55.38 N	04.30 W
Kingsale	Munster	Ireland	Europe	51.32 N	08.20 W
KINGSTON	Jamaica	West-India	America	18.15 N	76.38 W
Kiow	Ukraine	Russia	Europe	50.30 N	31.12 E
Kola	Lapland	Russia	Europe	68.52 N	33.13 E
Koningsberg	Prussia	Poland	Europe	54.43 N	21.35 E
LAguna	Teneriffe	Canaries	Atl. ocean	28.28 N	16.13 W
Lahor	Lahor	East-India	Asia	32.40 N	75.30 E
Lancaster	Lancashire	England	Europe	54.05 N	02.55 E
Lancaster	Pennsylvania	United States	America	40.02 N	76.20 W
Landau	Alsace	France	Europe	49.11 N	08.02 E
Landscroon	Schonen	Sweden	Europe	55.52 N	12.51 E
Lausanne	Canton of Vaud	Switzerland	Europe	46.31 N	06.50 E
Leeds	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53.48 N	01.29 W
Leicester	Leicestershire	England	Europe	52.38 N	01.03 W
Leipsick	Saxony	Germany	Europe	51.19 N	12.25 E
Leith	Edinburgshire	Scotland	Europe	55.58 N	03.00 W
Leper's Island	S. Pacifick	Ocean	Asia	15.23 S	168.03 E
Leskard	Cornwall	England	Europe	50.26 N	04.36 W
Lesparre	Guienne	France	Europe	45.18 N	00.52 W
Levant Sea	Coast of	Syria	Asia	Mediterranean Sea.	
LEXINGTON	Kentucky	United States	America	38.25 N	85.09 W
Leyden	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52.10 N	04.32 E
Liege	Bishop of Liege	Netherlands	Europe	50.37 N	05.40 E
Lima	Peru	South	America	12.01 S	76.44 W

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Limerick	Munster	Ireland	Europe	52.35 N	08.48 W
Limoges	Limoges	France	Europe	45.49 N	01.20 E
Lincoln	Lincolnshire	England	Europe	53 15 N	00.27 W
Linlithgow	Linlithgowshire	Scotland	Europe	55.56 E	03 30 W
Lintz	Austria	Germany	Europe	48.16 N	13.57 E
Lisbon	Estremadura	Portugal	Europe	38.42 N	09.04 W
Lisle	French Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50.37 N	03.09 E
Litchfield	Staffordshire	England	Europe	52.47 N	01.04 W
Lizard Point	Cornwall	England	Europe	49.57 N	05.10 W
LONDON	Middlesex	England	Europe	51.31 N	1st Meridn.
Londonderry	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	50.00 N	07.40 W
Loretto	Pope's Territory	Italy	Europe	43.15 N	14.15 E
Louisbourg	Cape Breton Isle	North	America	45.53 N	59 48 W
Louisville	Georgia	United States	America	32.00 N	82.00 W
Louvain	Austrian Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	50.53 N	04.49 E
Louveau	Siam	East-India	Asia	12.42 N	100.56 E
Lubec	Holstein	Germany	Europe	54.00 N	11.40 E
St. Lucia Isle	Windward Isles	West-India	N America	13.24 N	60 46 W
Lunden	Gothland	Sweden	Europe	55.41 N	13 26 E
Luneville	Lorrain	France	Europe	48.35 N	06.35 E
Luxemburg	Luxemburg	Netherlands	Europe	49.37 N	06.16 E
Lyons	Lyons	France	Europe	45 45 N	04.54 E
MAcao	Canton	China	Asia	22.12 N	113.51 E
Macassar	Celebes Isle	East-India	Asia	05 09 S	119.53 E
Madeira Funchal	Atlantick	Ocean	Africa	32.37 N	17.01 W
Madras	Coromandel	East-India	Asia	13.04 N	80.33 E
MADRID	New-Castile	Spain	Europe	40.25 N	03.20 E
Magdalena Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	10.25 S	138.44 W
Mahon Port	Minorca	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	39.50 N	03.53 E
Majorca	Isle	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	39.35 N	02.34 E
Malacca	Malacca	East-India	Asia	02.12 N	102 10 E
Malines	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51.01 N	04.33 E
Malicola (Isle)	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	16 15 N	167.44 E
St. Maloes	Bretagne	France	Europe	48.38 N	01.53 W
Malta Isle	Mediterranean	Sea	Africa	35.54 N	14.33 E
Manilla	Philip. Isles	East-India	Asia	14.36 N	120.58 E
MANTUA	Mantua	Italy	Europe	45.20 N	10 47 E
Marigalante	Atlantick	Ocean	S. America	15.55 N	61.06 W
MARIETTA	N. W. Territory	United States	America	39.34 N	81 40 W
Marseilles	Provence	France	Europe	43.17 N	05.27 E
St. Martha	St. Martha	Terra Firma	America	11.26 N	73.59 W
St. Martin's Isle	Caribbean Isles	West-India	America	18 04 N	62.57 W
Martinico Isle	Caribbean Isles	West-India	America	14.44 N	61.16 W
St. Mary's Isle	Scilly Isles	Atlant. ocean	Europe	49.52 N	06.38 W
St. Mary's Town	Azores	Atlant. ocean	Europe	36.56 N	25.04 W
Maskelyne Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	16.32 S	168 04 E
Mauritius	Indian	Ocean	Africa	20.09 S	57.34 E
Maurua Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	16.25 S	152.37 E
Mayence	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49 54 N	08.25 E
Mayo Isle	Cape Verd	Atlant. ocean	Africa	15.10 N	23 00 W
Meaux	Champagne	France	Europe	48.57 N	02.57 E
Mecca	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	21.45 N	41.00 E
Medina	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	25.00 N	39.53 E
Mediterra. Sea	between	Europe and	Africa	Atlantick Ocean.	
Mequinez	Fez	Barbary	Africa	34.30 N	06.00 E
MESSINA	Sicily Island	Italy	Europe	38.30 N	15.40 E
Mergui	Siam	East-India	Asia	12.12 N	98.13 E
Mexico	Mexico	North	America	19 54 N	100.00 W
Miatea Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	17 52 S	148.01 W
St. Michael's Isle	Azores	Atlant. ocean	Europe	37.47 N	25.37 W
Middleburg Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	21.20 S	174 29 W
MILAN	Milanese	Italy	Europe	45.25 N	09.30 E
Milford Haven	Pembrokeshire	Wales	Europe	51.45 N	05.15 W

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Lon. D. M.
Mocha	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	13.40 N	43 50 E
Modena	Modena	Italy	Europe	44.34 N	11.17 E
Montreal	Canada	North	America	45.35 N	73.11 W
Montpelier	Languedoc	France	Europe	43.36 N	03.37 E
Montague Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	17.26 S	168.36 E
Montrose	Forfar	Scotland	Europe	56 34 N	02.20 W
Montserrat Isle	Caribbean Isles	West-India	America	16.47 N	62.12 W
Morocco	Morocco	Barbary	Africa	30.32 N	06.10 W
Moscow	Moscow	Russia	Europe	55 45 N	37.50 E
Munich	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48.09 N	11.35 E
Munster	Westphalia	Germany	Europe	52.00 N	07.10 E
Namur	Namur	Netherlands	Europe	50 28 N	04.49 E
Nancy	Lorraine	France	Europe	48.41 N	06.16 E
Nangasachi	Japan	N. Pacif. ocean	Asia	32.32 N	128 51 E
Nankin	Kiangan	China	Asia	32 00 N	118.30 E
Nantes	Bretagne	France	Europe	47.13 N	01.28 W
Naples	Naples	Italy	Europe	40.50 N	14 18 E
Narva	Livonia	Russia	Europe	59.00 N	27.35 E
New-Haven	Connecticut	United States	America	41 19 N	73.00 W
New-York	New-York	United States	America	40.40 N	74.00 W
Newcastle	Northumberland	England	Europe	55.03 N	01.24 W
Newport	Rhode-Island	United States	America	41.29 N	71.17 W
Nice	Piedmont	Italy	Europe	43.41 N	07.22 E
St. Nicholas Mole	Hispaniola	West-India	America	19.49 N	73.24 W
Nieuport	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51.07 N	02.50 E
Nineveh	Curdistan	Turkey	Asia	36.00 N	45.00 E
Ningpo	Chekiang	China	Asia	29.57 N	120.23 E
Norfolk Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	29.01 S	168.15 E
Norfolk	Virginia	United States	America	36.55 N	01.20 W
Norristown	Pennsylvania	North	America	40.09 N	75.18 W
North Cape	Wardhus	Lapland	Europe	71.10 N	26.02 E
Northampton	Northamptonsh.	England	Europe	52.15 N	00.55 W
Norwich	Norfolk	England	Europe	52 40 N	01.25 E
Nuremburg	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49.27 N	11 12 E
Nottingham	Nottinghamsh.	England	Europe	53.00 N	01.06 W
Okotskoi	Siberia	Russia	Asia	59.20 N	143.17 E
Onevahoa Is.	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	09.40 S	138.56 W
Ohitahoo Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	09.55 S	139.01 W
Oleron	Saintonge	France	Europe	46.02 N	01.20 W
Olindee	Brazil	South	America	08.13 S	35.00 W
Olmutz	Moravia	Bohemia	Europe	49.30 N	16.45 E
Olympia	Greece	Turkey	Europe	37.30 N	22.00 E
St. Omer's	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50.44 N	02.19 E
Onateayo Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	09.58 S	138.46 W
Oporto	Duoro	Portugal	Europe	41.10 N	08.22 W
Oren	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36.30 N	00.05 E
Orenburg	Tartary	Russia	Asia	51.46 N	55.14 E
L'Orient (Port)	Bretagne	France	Europe	47.45 N	03.20 W
Orleans	Orleannois	France	Europe	47.54 N	01 59 E
Orleans (New)	Louisiana	North	America	29.57 N	89.53 W
Ormus	Ormicos Isle	Persia	Asia	26.50 N	57.00 E
Orotava	Teneriffe	Atlant. ocean	Africa	28.23 N	16.19 W
Orsk	Tartary	Russia	Asia	51.12 N	58.37 E
Osnaburg Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	17.52 S	148.01 E
Ostend	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51.13 N	03.00 E
Otaheite	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	17 29 S	149.35 W
Owhyee	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	22 10 S	199.00 E
Oxford Observatory	Oxfordshire	England	Europe	51.45 N	01.10 W
Pacifick ocean between		Asia and	America		
Padua	Paduano	Italy	Europe	45.22 N	12.00 E
Paisley	Renfrewshire	Scotland	Europe	55 48 N	04.08 W
Palermo	Sicily Isle	Italy	Europe	38.30 N	13.43 E

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Lon. D. M.
Palliser's Isles	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	15.38 S	146.25 W
Palma Isle	Canaries	Atlant. ocean	Africa	28.36 N	17.45 W
Palmerston's Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	18.00 S	162.52 W
Palmyra	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33.00 N	39.00 E
Panama	Darien	Terra Firma	S. America	08.47 N	80.15 W
Paoom Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	16.30 S	168.33 E
PARIS (observ.)	Isle of France	France	Europe	48.50 N	2.25 E
Parma	Parmasan	Italy	Europe	44.45 N	10.51 E
Patna	Bengal	East-India	Asia	25.45 N	83.00 E
Patrixfiord	Iceland	N. Atla. ocean	Europe	65.35 N	14.05 W
Pau	Bearn	France	Europe	43.15 N	0.04 W
St. Paul's Isle	South	Indian ocean	Africa	37.51 S	77.53 E
Pegu	Pegu	East-India	Asia	17.00 N	97.00 E
Pekin	Petchili	China	Asia	39.54 N	116.29 E
Pelew Islands	North	Pacifick ocean	Asia	7.00 N	135.00 E
Pembroke	Pembrokeshire	Wales	Europe	51.45 N	4.50 W
PENSACOLA	West-Florida	North	America	30.22 N	87.20 W
Penzance	Cornwall	England	Europe	50.08 N	6.00 W
Periguex	Guienne	France	Europe	45.11 N	0.48 E
Perinaldi	Genoa	Italy	Europe	43.53 N	7.45 E
Perth	Perthshire	Scotland	Europe	56.22 N	3.12 W
Perth Amboy	New-Jersey	United States	America	40.30 N	74.20 W
Persepolis	Irac Agem	Persia	Asia	30.30 N	54.00 E
St. Peter's Fort	Martinico	West-India	N.America	14.44 N	61.16 W
St. Peter's Isle	North	Atlant. ocean	America	46.46 N	56.12 W
PETERSBURG	Ingria	Russia	Europe	59.56 N	30.24 E
Petropawloskoi	Kamtschatka	Russia	Asia	53.01 N	158.40 E
PHILADELPHIA	Pennsylvania	United States	America	39.56 N	75.09 W
St. Philip's Fort	Minorca	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	39.59 N	3.53 E
Pickersgill Isle	South	Atlant. ocean	America	54.42 S	36.53 W
Pico	Azores	Atlant. ocean	Europe	38.28 N	28.21 W
Pines, Isle of	N. Caledonia	Pacifick ocean	Asia	22.38 S	167.43 E
Pisa	Tuscany	Italy	Europe	43.43 N	10.17 E
Pittsburg	Pennsylvania	United States	America	40.26 N	80.00 W
Placentia	Newfoundl. Isle	North	America	47.26 N	55.00 W
Plymouth	Devonshire	England	Europe	50.22 N	4.10 W
Plymouth	Massachusetts	United States	America	41.48 N	70.25 W
Pollingen	Swabia	Germany	Europe	47.48 N	10.48 E
Pondicherry	Coromandel	East-India	Asia	11.41 N	79.57 E
Ponoi	Lapland	Russia	Europe	67.06 N	36.28 E
Porto Bello	Terra Firma	South	America	09.33 N	79.45 W
Port Sancto Isle	Madeira	Atlant. ocean	Africa	32.58 N	16.20 W
Port Royal	Jamaica	West-India	America	18.00 N	76.40 W
Port Royal	Martinico	West-India	America	14.35 N	61.04 W
Portland Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	39.25 S	178.17 E
Portland Isle	North	Atlant. ocean	Europe	63.22 N	18.49 W
Portland	District of Maine	United States	America	43.39.30" N	70.23 W
Portsm. Town	Hampshire	England	Europe	50.47 N	01.01 W
PORTSMOUTH	New-Hampshire	United States	America	43.05 N	70.43 W
Potoh	Peru	South	America	21.00 S	77.00 W
Prague		Bohemia	Europe	50.04 N	14.50 E
Presburg	Upper	Hungary	Europe	48.20 N	17.30 W
Preston	Lancashire	England	Europe	53.45 N	2.50 W
Prince Walesfort	New N. Wales	North	America	58.47 N	94.02 W
PROVIDENCE	Rhode-Island	United States	America	41.50 N	71.21 W
Pulo Candor Isle	Indian ocean	East-India	Asia	84.0 N	107.25 E
Pulo Timor Isle	Gulf of Siam	East-India	Asia	3.00 N	104.30 E
Pylestaart Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	22.23 S	175.36 E
Quebeck	Lower Canada	North	America	46.55 N	69.48 W
Queen	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	10.11 S	164.35 E
St Quintin	Picardy	France	Europe	49.50 N	3.22 E
Quito	Peru	South	America	0.13 S	77.59 W

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Ragusa	Dalmatia	Venice	Europe	42 45 N	18.25 E
Ramhead	Cornwall	England	Europe	50.18 N	4.15 W
Ratisbon	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48.56 N	12.05 E
Re Isle	Aunis	France	Europe	46 14 N	1.29 W
Recif	Brazil	South	America	8.10 S	35.30 W
Rennes	Bretagne	France	Europe	48.06 N	1.36 W
Resolution Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	17.23 S	141.40 W
Rheims	Champagne	France	Europe	49.14 N	4.07 E
Rhodes	Rhode-Island	Levant sea	Asia	36.20 N	28.00 E
RICHMOND	Virginia	United States	America	37.40 N	77.50 W
Riga	Livonia	Russia	Europe	56.55 N	24.00 E
Rimini	Romagna	Italy	Europe	44.03 N	12.39 E
Rochelle	Aunis	France	Europe	46.09 N	1.04 W
Rochfort	Saintonge	France	Europe	46 02 N	0.53 W
Rock of Lisbon	Mouth R. Tagus	Portugal	Europe	38.45 N	9.30 W
Rodez	Guienne	France	Europe	44.21 N	2.39 E
Rodrigues Isle	South	Indian ocean	Africa	10.40 N	63.15 E
Rome, St. Peter's	Pope's Territory	Italy	Europe	41.53 N	12.34 E
Rotterdam	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	51.56 N	4.33 E
Rotterdam Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	20.16 N	174.25 W
Rouen	Normandy	France	Europe	49.26 N	1.00 W
S. Aba Isle	Carib. sea	West-India	America	17.39 N	63.12 W
Sagan	Silesia	Germany	Europe	51 42 N	15.27 E
St. Augustine	East-Florida	North	America	29 45 N	81.12 W
St Domingo	Carib. sea	West-India	America	18.20 N	70.00 W
St George's Chan.	between	Eng. & Ireland	Europe	Atlantick Ocean.	
St. Jago	Chili	South	America	34.00 S	77.00 W
St. Juan	California	North	America	26.25 N	114.09 W
St. Salvador	Brazil	South	America	11 58 S	38.00 W
Salem	Massachusetts	United States	America	42.35 N	70.52 W
Salisbury	Wiltshire	England	Europe	51.00 N	1.45 W
Sall Isle	North	Atlant. ocean	Africa	16.38 N	22.51 W
Salonichi	Macedonia	Turkey	Europe	40.41 N	23.13 E
Salvage Isles	North	Atlant. ocean	Africa	30.00 N	15.49 W
Samana	Hispaniola	West-India	America	19.15 N	69.11 W
Samarcand	Usbec	Tartary	Asia	40.40 N	69.00 E
Samaria Ruins	Holy Land	Turkey	Asia	32.40 N	38.00 E
Sandwich Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	17.41 S	168.58 E
Santa Cruz	Teneriffe	Atlant. ocean	Africa	28.27 N	16.11 W
Santa Fee	New-Mexico	North	America	36.00 N	104.00 W
Savage Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	19.02 S	169.25 W
SAVANNAH	Georgia	United States	America	31.55 N	80.20 W
Saunder's Isle	South Georgia	S. Atl. ocean	S. America	58.00 S	26.53 W
Sayd, or Thebes	Upper	Egypt	Africa	27.00 N	32.20 E
Scarborough	Yorkshire	England	Europe	54.18 N	0.10 W
Schwezingen	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49.23 N	8.45 E
Scone	Perthshire	Scotland	Europe	56.24 N	3.10 W
Sea of Asoph	Little Tartary	Europe and	Asia		
—— Marmora	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia	Black Sea.	
—— Ochotsk	between	Siberia&Kamtschatka	Asia	N. Pacifick Ocean.	
—— Yellow	between Eastern	Tartary, China & Corea		N. Pacifick Ocean.	
Sedan	Champagne	France	Europe	49.42 N	5.02 E
Senegal		Negroland	Africa	15.53 N	16.26 W
Seville	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	37.15 N	6.05 W
Sheerness	Kent	England	Europe	51.25 N	0.50 E
Shepherd's Isles	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	16.58 S	168.17 E
Shield's (South)	Durham	England	Europe	55.02 N	1.15 E
Shrewsbury	Shropshire	England	Europe	52.43 N	2.46 E
Siam	Siam	East-India	Asia	14.18 N	100.55 E
Sidon	Holy Land	Turkey	Asia	33.33 N	36.15 E
Sighamfu	Chensi	China	Asia	34.16 N	108.48 E

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Sisteron	Dauphine	France	Europe	44.11 N	6.01 E
Smyrna	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	38.28 N	27.24 E
Sombavera Isles	Carib. sea	West-India	N.America	18.38 N	63.32 W
Soloo Isle	Philip. Isles	East-India	Asia	05.57 N	121.20 E
Southampton	Hampshire	England	Europe	50.55 N	1.25 W
Spaw	Leige	Germany	Europe	50.30 N	5.40 E
Stafford	Staffordshire	England	Europe	52.50 N	2.00 W
Stockholm	Upland	Sweden	Europe	59.20 N	18.08 E
Sterling	Sterlingshire	Scotland	Europe	56.10 N	3.50 W
Straits of Babelmandeb, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.					
—— of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.					
—— of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.					
—— of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.					
—— of Magellan, between Terra del Fuego and Patagonia, South-America.					
—— of La Maire, in Patagonia, South-America, Atlantick and Pacifick ocean.					
—— of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf.					
—— of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia.					
—— of Waigats, between Nova-Zembla and Russia, Asia.					
Stralsund	Pomerania	Germany	Europe	54.23 N	13.22 E
Strasburg	Alsace	France	Europe	48.34 N	7.46 E
Straumness	Iceland	N.Atlan.ocean	Europe	65.39 N	24.24 W
Suez	Suez	Egypt	Africa	29.50 N	33.27 E
Sultz	Lorraine	France	Europe	47.53 N	7.09 W
Sunderland	Durham	England	Europe	54.55 N	1.10 W
Surat	Guzurat	East-India	Asia	21.10 N	72.27 E
Surinam	Surinam	South	America	6.00 N	55.30 W
Syracuse	Sicily Isle	Italy	Europe	36.58 N	15.05 E
TAble island	New Hebrides	South Pacifick	Asia	15.38 S	167.12 E
Tanjour	Tanjour	East-India	Asia	11.27 N	79.07 E
Tanna	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	19.32 S	169.46 E
Taoukaa Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	14.30 S	145.04 W
Tauris	Aderbeitzan	Persia	Asia	38.20 N	46.30 E
Teflis	Georgia	Persia	Asia	43.30 N	47.00 E
Temontengis	Soloo	East-India	Asia	5.57 N	120.58 E
Teneriffe Peak	Canaries	Atlantic ocean	Africa	28.12 N	16.24 W
Tercera	Azores	Atlantic ocean	Europe	38.45 N	27.01 W
Teruan	Fez	Barbary	Africa	35.40 N	5.18 W
St. Thomas's Isle	Virgin Isles	West-India	America	18.21 N	64.46 W
Thorn	Regal Prussia	Poland	Europe	52.56 N	19.00 W
Timor, s.w. Point		East-India	Asia	10.23 S	124.04 E
Timorland S.Poi.		East-India	Asia	8.15 S	131.59 E
Tobolski	Siberia	Russia	Asia	58.12 N	68.17 E
Toledo	New-Castile	Spain	Europe	39.50 N	3.25 E
Tomsk	Siberia	Russia	Asia	56.29 N	85.04 E
TongaTabu Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	21.09 S	174.41 W
Tornea	Bothnia	Sweden	Europe	65.50 N	24.17 E
Toulon	Provence	France	Europe	43.07 N	6.01 E
Trapesond	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	41.50 N	40.30 E
Trent	Trent	Germany	Europe	46.05 N	11.02 E
TRENTON	New-Jersey	United States	America	40.15 N	74.15 W
Tripoli	Tripoli	Barbary	Africa	32.53 N	13.12 E
Tripoli	Syria	Turkey	Asia	34.30 N	36.15 E
Troy Ruins	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	39.30 N	26.30 E
Tunis	Tunis	Barbary	Africa	36.47 N	10.00 E
Turin	Piedmont	Italy	Europe	45.05 N	7.45 E
Turtle Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	19.48 S	178.02 W
Tyre	Palestine	Turkey	Asia	32.32 N	36.00 E
Tyrnaw	Trentschin	Hungary	Europe	48.23 N	17.38 E
ULiatea	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	16.45 S	151.26 W
Upsal	Upland	Sweden	Europe	59.51 N	17.47 E
Uraniberg	Huen Isle	Denmark	Europe	55.54 N	12.57 E
Ushant Isle	Bretagne	France	Europe	48.28 N	4.59 W
Utrecht	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52.07 N	5.00 E

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
VEnice	Venice	Italy	Europe	45.26 N	11.59 E
Vera Cruz	Mexico	North	America	19.12 N	97.25 W
VERNON, Mount	Virginia	United States	America	38.40 N	77.20 W
Verona	Veronese	Italy	Europe	45.26 N	11.23 E
Versailles	Isle of France	France	Europe	48.48 N	2.12 E
VIENNA, Obser.	Austria	Germany	Europe	48.12 N	16.22 E
Vigo	Gallicia	Spain	Europe	42.14 N	8.23 W
Vintimiglia	Genoa	Italy	Europe	43.53 N	7.42 E
Virgin Gorda	Virgin Isles	West-India	Ameriea	18 18 N	63.59 W
WAkefield	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53.41 N	1.28 W
Prince of Wales' Fort	New N. Wales	North	America	58.47 N	94.01 W
Wardhus	Norwegian Lapland	Lapland	Europe	70.22 N	31.11 E
Warsaw	Massovia	Poland	Europe	52.14 N	21.05 E
Warwick	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52.18 N	1.32 W
WASHINGTON	Columb. District	United States	America	38.54 N	77.09 W
Waterford	Munster	Ireland	Europe	52.12 N	7.16 W
Wells	Somersetshire	England	Europe	51.12 N	2.40 W
Westman Isles	North	Atlantic ocean	Europe	63.20 N	20.22 W
Whitehaven	Cumberland	England	Europe	54.38 N	3.36 W
Whitsuntide Isle	South	Pacifick ocean	Asia	15.44 S	168.25 E
Williamsburg	Virginia	United States	America	37.12 N	76.48 W
Willis' Isles	South Georgia	Atlantic ocean	America	54.00 S	38.24 W
Winchester	Hampshire	England	Europe	51.06 N	1.15 W
Wilna	Lithuania	Poland	Europe	54.41 N	25.32 E
Wittenburg	Upper Saxony	Germany	Europe	51.49 N	12.46 E
Wologda	Wologda	Russia	Europe	59.19 N	41.50 E
Worcester	Worcestershire	England	Europe	52.09 N	1.55 W
Worcester	Massachusetts	United States	America	42.23 N	71.44 W
Worms	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49.38 N	8.05 E
Woslak		Russia	Europe	61.15 N	
Wurtzburg	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49.46 N	10.18 E
YArmouth	Norfolk	England	Europe	52.45 N	1.48 E
York	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53.59 N	1.01 W
Yorktown	Virginia	United States	America	37.14 N	76.43 W
Yorkminster	Terra del Fuego	South	America	55.26 N	70.03 W

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF REMARKABLE

EVENTS, DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS:

COMPREHENDING, IN ONE VIEW,

THE ANALYSIS OR OUTLINES OF GENERAL HISTORY,

From the Creation to the Present Time.

Bef. Christ.

4004 THE creation of the world, and of Adam and Eve.
4003 The birth of Cain, the first who was born of a woman.
3017 Enoch translated into heaven.
2348 The old world destroyed by a deluge, which continued 377 days.
2247 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's posterity; upon which God miraculously confounds their language, and thus disperses them into different nations.
2234 Celestial observations are begun at Babylon, the city which first gave birth to learning and the sciences.
2188 Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which lasted 1663 years, to the conquest of Cambyses.
2059 Ninus, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria, which lasted above 1000 years.
1921 The covenant of God made with Abraham, when he leaves Haran to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years of sojourning.
1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are destroyed for their wickedness by fire from heaven.
1856 The kingdom of Argos in Greece begins under Inachus.
1822 Memnon the Egyptian invents the letters.
1715 Prometheus first struck fire from flints.
1635 Joseph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Genesis, containing a period of 2369 years.
1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God first high priest of the Israelites.
1571 Moses, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter.
1556 Cecrops brings a colony of Saites from Egypt, into Attica, and begins the kingdom of Athens in Greece.
1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and begins the kingdom of Troy.
1503 Deluge of Deucalion in Thessaly.
1493 Cadmus carried the Phœnician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.
1491 Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Israelites besides children, which completed the 430 years of sojourning.
1485 The first ship that appeared in Greece brought from Egypt by Danaus who arrived at Rhodes, and brought with him his fifty daughters.
1453 The first Olympick games celebrated at Olympia in Greece.
1452 The Pentateuch, or five first books of Moses, are written in the land of Moab, where he died the following year, aged 110 years.

B.C.

1451 The Iſraelites, after ſojourning in the wilderneſs forty years, are led under Joſhua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themſelves, after having ſubdued the natives; and the period of the ſabbatical year commences.
1406 Iron is found in Greece from the accidental burning of the woods.
1263 Argonautick expedition.
1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which, in 1193, gave riſe to the Trojan war, and ſiege of Troy by the Greeks which continued ten years, when that city was taken and burned.
1048 David is ſole king of Iſrael.
1004 The Temple is ſolemnly dedicated by Solomon.
896 Elijah, the prophet, is tranſlated to heaven.
894 Money firſt made of gold and ſilver at Argos.
869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by Queen Dido.
814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
776 The firſt Olympiad begins.
753 Æra of the building of Rome in Italy by Romulus firſt King of the Romans.
720 Samaria taken after three years ſiege, and the kingdom of Iſrael overthrown by Salmanaſer King of Aſſyria, who carried the ten tribes into captivity.
The firſt eclipſe of the moon on record.
658 Byzantium (now Conſtantinople) built by a colony of Athenians.
604 By order of Necho, King of Egypt, ſome Phœnicians ſailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
600 Thales of Miletus travels into Egypt, acquires the knowledge of geometry, aſtronomy and philoſophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipſes, and gives general notions of the univerſe, and maintains that one Supreme Intelligence regulates all its motions.
Maps, globes, and the ſigns of the Zodiack, invented by Anaximander, the ſcholar of Thales.
597 Jehoiakin, King of Judah, is carried away captive by Nebuchadnezzar to Babylon.
587 The city of Jeruſalem taken after a ſiege of 18 months.
562 The firſt comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable ſcaffold.
559 Cyrus the firſt King of Perſia.
538 The kingdom of Babylon deſtroyed; that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, iſſued an edict for the return of the Jews.
534 The firſt tragedy acted at Athens, on a waggon, by Theſpis.
526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a publick library firſt founded.
515 The ſecond temple at Jeruſalem is finiſhed under Darius.
509 Tarquin the ſeventh, and laſt king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two conſuls and other republican magiſtrates, until the battle of Pharſalia, 461 years.
504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occaſion to the Perſian invaſion of Greece.
486 Æſchylus, the Greek Poet, firſt gains the prize of tragedy.
481 Xerxes, King of Perſia, begins his expedition againſt Greece.
458 Ezra is ſent from Babylon to Jeruſalem, with the captive Jews, and the veſſels of gold and ſilver, &c. being ſeventy weeks of years, or 490 years before the crucifixion of our Saviour.
454 The Romans ſend to Athens for Solon's laws.
451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the twelve tables compiled and ratified.
443 Cenſors created at Rome.
432 Nineteen years cycle invented by Meton.
430 The hiſtory of the Old Teſtament finiſhes about this time.

B. C.

430 Malachi, the laſt of the prophets.
401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks, under Xenophon.
400 Socrates, the founder of moral philoſophy among the Greeks, put to death by the Athenians, who ſoon after repent and erect to his memory a ſtatue of braſs.
379 Bœtian war commences in Greece, finiſhed in 366, after the death of Epaminondas, the laſt of the Grecian heroes. After his death, Philip, brother to the king of Macedon, who had been educated under him, privately ſet out for that country, ſeized the kingdom, and after a continual courſe of war, treachery and diſſimulation, put an end to the liberty of the Greeks by the battle of Cheronea.
336 Philip King of Macedon murdered, and ſucceeded by his ſon Alexander the Great.
332 Alexandria in Egypt built.
331 Alexander, king of Macedon, conquers Darius King of Perſia, and other nations of Aſia.
323 Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms, after deſtroying his wives, children, brother, mother, and ſiſters.
291 Darkneſs at Rome at noon day.
290 Solar quadrants introduced at Rome.
285 Dionyſius, of Alexandria, began his aſtronomical era on Monday, June 26, being the firſt who found the ſolar year to conſiſt exactly of 365 days, 5 hours and 49 minutes.
284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, King of Egypt, employs ſeventy-two interpreters to tranſlate the Old Teſtament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.
269 The firſt coinage of ſilver at Rome.
264 The firſt Punick war begins, and continues 24 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marbles compoſed.
260 The Romans firſt concern themſelves in naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at ſea.
250 Eratoſthenes firſt attempted to meaſure the earth.
242 Conick ſections invented by Apollonius.
218 The ſecond Punick war begins and continues 17 years. Hannibal paſſes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in ſeveral battles; but being abandoned and refuſed ſupport by his countrymen, fails in the accompliſhment of his purpoſe.
190 The firſt Roman army enters Aſia, and from the ſpoils of Antiochus brings the Aſiatick luxury to Rome.
170 Eighty thouſand Jews maſſacred by Antiochus Epiphanes.
168 Perſeus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.
167 The firſt library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins and continues 126 years.
146 Carthage and Corinth raſed to the ground by the Romans.
145 A hundred thouſand inhabitants of Antioch maſſacred in one day by the Jews.
135 The hiſtory of the Apocrypha ends.
63 Cataline's conſpiracy againſt the liberties of his country detected.
52 Julius Cæſar makes his firſt expedition into Britain.
47 The battle of Pharſalia between Cæſar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.
The Alexandrian library, conſiſting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himſelf.

B. C

45 The ſolar year introduced by Cæſar.
44 Cæſar killed in the ſenate houſe, after having fought 50 pitched battles and overturned the liberties of his country.
43 Brutus, one of the conſpirators againſt Cæſar, and chief of the republicans, being vanquiſhed in the battle of Philippi, kills himſelf.
41 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæſar.
30 Alexandria taken by Octavius, and Egypt reduced to a Roman province.
27 Octavius, by a decree of the ſenate, obtains the title of Auguſtus Cæſar, and an abſolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the firſt Roman emperor.
8 Rome is at this time 50 miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.
The temple of Janus is ſhut by Auguſtus, as an emblem of univerſal peace; and JESUS CHRIST is ſuppoſed to have been born in September, or on Monday, December 25.

After Chriſt.

12 Chriſt diſputes with the doctors in the temple.
29 ——— is baptized in the wilderneſs by John.
33 ——— is crucified on Friday, April 3, at three o'clock, P. M.
His reſurrection on Lord's Day, April 5: His aſcenſion, Thurſday, May 14.
36 St. Paul converted.
39 St. Matthew writes his Goſpel.
Pontius Pilate kills himſelf.
40 The name of Chriſtians firſt given at Antioch to the followers of Chriſt.
43 Claudius Cæſar's expedition into Britain.
44 St. Mark writes his Goſpel.
46 Chriſtianity carried into Spain.
49 London is founded by the Romans; and in 363 ſurrounded with a wall, ſome parts of which are ſtill obſervable.
51 Caractacus, the Britiſh king, is carried in chains to Rome.
52 The council of the Apoſtles at Jeruſalem.
55 St. Luke writes his Goſpel.
59 The tyrant Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.
60 Chriſtianity preached in Britain.
61 Boadicea, the Britiſh queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered ſoon after by Suetonius, governour of Britain.
62 St. Paul is ſent in bonds to Rome—writes his epiſtles between 51 and 66.
63 The Acts of the Apoſtles written.
Chriſtianity is ſuppoſed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or ſome of his diſciples about this time.
64 Rome ſet on fire, and burned for ſix days; upon which began, under Nero, the firſt perſecution againſt the Chriſtians.
67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
70 Titus takes Jeruſalem, which is raſed to the ground, and the plough made to paſs over it.
79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Veſuvius.
96 St. John the Evangeliſt wrote his Revelation—his Goſpel in 97.
136 The ſecond Jewiſh war ends, when they were all baniſhed Judea.
139 Juſtin writes his firſt apology for the Chriſtians.
152 The Emperor Antonius Pius ſtops the perſecution againſt the Chriſtians.

A. C.

217 The Septuagint ſaid to be found in a caſk. Church yards begin to be conſecrated.

274 Silk firſt brought from India, and the manufacture of it introduced into Europe 551.

303 The tenth general perſecution begins under Dioclefian and Galerius.

306 Conſtantine the Great begins his reign.

308 Cardinals firſt inſtituted.

313 The tenth perſecution ends by an edict of Conſtantine, who favours the Chriſtians, and gives full liberty to their religion.

325 The firſt general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended againſt Arius, where was compoſed the famous Nicene Creed.

328 Conſtantine removes the ſeat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is thenceforward called Conſtantinople.

331 Conſtantine orders all the heathen temples to be deſtroyed.

363 The Emperor Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jeruſalem.

364 The Roman empire is divided into the eaſtern (Conſtantinople the capital) and weſtern (of which Rome continued to be the capital;) each being now under the government of different Emperors.

400 Bells invented by biſhop Paulinus of Nola in Campagna.

410 Rome taken and plundered by Alarick, King of the Goths.

412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.

420 The kingdom of France begins upon the lower Rhine, under Pharamond.

Salique law confirmed by this monarch.

426 The Romans withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return, adviſing the Britons to arm in their own defence, and truſt to their valour.

432 St. Patrick began to preach in Ireland: he died 17th March, 493 aged 122 years.

446 The Britons, now left to themſelves, are greatly haraſſed by the Scots and Picts; upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans, but receive no aſſiſtance from that quarter.

447 Attila, (ſurnamed the ſcourge of God) with his Huns, ravages the Roman Empire.

449 Vortigern, King, of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain againſt the Scots and Picts.

455 The Saxons, having repulſed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to eſtabliſh themſelves in Kent under Hengiſt.

476 The weſtern empire entirely deſtroyed; upon the ruins of which ſeveral new ſtates ariſe in Italy and other parts, conſiſting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other Barbarians; under whom literature is extinguiſhed, and the works of the learned are deſtroyed.

496 Clovis, King of France, baptized, and Chriſtianity begins in that kingdom

508 Prince Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.

510 Paris becomes the capital of France.

516 The computing of time by the Chriſtian era is introduced by Dionyſius the monk.

529 The code of Juſtinian, the eaſtern emperor, is publiſhed.

557 A terrible plague, all over Europe, Aſia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.

581 Latin ceaſed to be ſpoken about this time in Italy.

600 Bells firſt uſed in churches.

606 The power of the Popes begins by the conceſſions of Phocas, Emperor of the eaſt.

A. C.

622 Mahomet flies from Mecca to Medina in Arabia. His followers compute their time from this era, which in Arabick is called Hegira, *i. e.* the Flight.
637 Jeruſalem taken by the Saracens or followers of Mahomet.
642 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by the Saracens, and the grand library there burned by order of Omar their caliph, or prince.
664 Glaſs invented in England by Benalt, a monk.
670 Building with ſtone introduced into England by Bennet a monk.
685 The Britons totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
696 Churches firſt begun to be built in England.
713 The Saracens conquer Spain. Their progreſs ſtopped in France by Charles Martel, in 732
726 The controverſy about images begins, and occaſions many inſurrections in the Eaſtern empire.
748 The computing of years from the birth of Chriſt begun to be uſed in hiſtory.
749 The race of Abbas become caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.
761 Thirty thouſand books burnt by order of the emperor Leo.
762 The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris is made the capital of the Saracen empire.
786 The ſurplice, a veſtment of the Pagan Prieſts, introduced into churches.
800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the weſtern empire, and endeavours in vain to reſtore learning in Europe.
828 Egbert, King of Weſſex, unites the Heptarchy by the name of England.
838 The Scots and Picts have a deciſive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kennet, which begins the ſecond period of the Scottiſh hiſtory.
886 Juries firſt inſtituted.
896 Alfred the Great, after ſubduing the Daniſh invaders, compoſes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; erects county courts, and founds the Univerſity of Oxford about this time.
915 The Univerſity of Cambridge founded.
936 The Saracen empire divided into ſeven kingdoms, by uſurpation.
940 Chriſtianity eſtabliſhed in Denmark.
989 Chriſtianity eſtabliſhed in Ruſſia.
991 The figures in Arithmetick are brought into Europe by the Saracens, from Arabia. Letters of the Alphabet were hitherto uſed.
1000 Paper made of cotton rags comes into uſe, that of linen do. 1170.—The manufactory introduced into England at Dartford 1588.
1014 On Good Friday, April 23d, the famous battle of Clontarf was fought wherein the Danes were completely defeated with the loſs of 11,000 men, and driven out of Ireland—but the Iriſh King, Brian Boromy, was killed, aged 88.
1015 Children forbidden by law to be ſold by their parents in England. Prieſts forbidden to marry.
1017 Canute, King of Denmark, gets poſſeſſion of England.
1025 Muſical gamut invented.
1040 The Danes driven out of Scotland.
1041 The Saxon line reſtored under Edward the Confeſſor.
1043 The Turks become formidable and take poſſeſſion of Perſia.
1054 Leo IX. the firſt Pope that kept up an army.
1065 The Turks take Jeruſalem from the Saracens.

A. C.

1066 The battle of Huſtings fought, between Harold and William duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and ſlain; after which William becomes King of England.

1070 William introduces the feudal law.

1075 Henry IV. Emperor of Germany, and the Pope, quarrel about the nomination of the German biſhops. Henry in penance, walks barefooted to Rome, towards the end of January.

1076 Juſtices of the peace firſt appointed in England.

1080 Doomſday book began to be compiled by order of William, from a ſurvey of all the eſtates in England, and finiſhed in 1086.

The tower of London built by the ſame prince, to curb his Engliſh ſubjects.

1086 Kingdom of Bohemia begun.

1091 The Saracens in Spain, being hard preſſed by the Spaniards, call to their aſſiſtance Joſeph, King of Morocco; by which the Moors get poſſeſſion of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.

1096 The firſt cruſade to the Holy Land begun, to drive the infidels from Jeruſalem.

1107 King's ſpeech firſt delivered by Henry I.

1110 Edgar Atheling, the laſt of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reſide as a ſubject.

Learning revived in Cambridge.

1140 King Stephen grants liberty to his nobles to build caſtles; in conſequence of which 1100 are erected in 14 years.

1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.

1163 London bridge, conſiſting of nineteen ſmall arches, firſt built of ſtone.

1180 Glaſs windows began to be uſed in private houſes in England.

1182 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the ſtirrups of his ſaddle when he mounted his horſe.

1186 The great conjunction of the ſun and moon and all the planets in Libra, happened in September.

1192 The battle of Aſcalon, in Judea, in which Richard, King of England, defeats Saladine's army, conſiſting of 300,000 combatants.

Richard treacherouſly impriſoned in his way home by the emperor of Germany.

1194 *Dieu et mon Droit*, firſt uſed as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.

1200 Chimnies were not known in England.

Surnames now began to be uſed; firſt among the nobility.

1208 London incorporated, and obtained its firſt charter from King John.

1215 Magna Charta is ſigned by King John and the barons of England; and the following year it is granted to the Iriſh by Henry III.

1227 The Tartars, a new race of Barbarians, under Gingis Khan, emerge from the northern part of Aſia, conquer the greateſt part of that continent, and in 22 years deſtroy upwards of 14 millions of people.

1233 The inquiſition, begun in 1204, is now truſted to the Dominicans.

The houſes of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, ſtill thatched with ſtraw.

1252 Magnifying glaſſes invented by Roger Bacon.

1253 The famous aſtronomical tables are compoſed by Alonzo King of Caſtile.

1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which puts an end to the empire of the Saracens.

1263 Acho, King of Norway, invades Scotland with 160 ſail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, but moſt of them are cut to pieces by Alexander III. who recovers the weſtern iſles.

1264 The commons of England have a place in parliament.

1273 The empire of the preſent Auſtrian family begins in Germany.

A. C.

1280 Pulvis fulminans and gunpowder invented by Roger Bacon.
1282 Wales united to England.
1285 Spectacles invented by Alexander Spina, a Spaniſh monk.
1293 There is a regular ſucceſſion of Engliſh parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.
1298 The preſent Turkiſh empire begins in Bithynia under Ottoman.
Silver hafted knives, ſpoons, and cups, a great luxury. Splinters of wood generally uſed for lights.
Wine ſold by apothecaries as a cordial.
1299 Windmills invented.
1300 About this time the mariner's compaſs was invented, or improved by John Gioia, or Goya, a Neapolitan. The flower-de-luce, the arms of the duke of Anjou, then king of Naples, was placed by him at the point of the needle, in compliment to that prince.
1307 The beginning of the Swiſs Cantons.
Intereſt of money in England at 45 per cent.
1308 The Popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
1320 Gold firſt coined in Chriſtendom—in England 1344.
1336 Two Brabant weavers ſettled at York, which, ſays Edward III. may prove of great benefit to us and our ſubjects.
1337 The firſt comet whoſe courſe is deſcribed with aſtronomical exactneſs.
1340 Gunpowder firſt ſuggeſted as uſeful for warlike purpoſes by Swartz, a monk of Cologne; 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Creſſy.
Oil painting firſt made uſe of, by John Vaneck.
1344 The firſt creation to titles by patent uſed by Edward III.
1352 The Turks firſt enter Europe.
1356 The battle of Poictiers, in which king John of France and his ſons are taken priſoners by Edward the Black Prince.
1357 Coals firſt brought to London.
1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to Engliſh, as a favour of Edward III. to his people.
1386 A company of linen weavers from the Netherlands eſtabliſhed in London.
1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amuſement.
1402 Bajazet defeated by Tamerlane, and the power of the Turks almoſt entirely deſtroyed.
1404 Hats for men invented at Paris by a Swiſs.
1422 Denmark united with the crown of Norway.
1415 The battle of Agincourt, gained over the French by Henry V. of England.
1428 The ſiege of Orleans. The celebrated Maid of Orleans appears, and gives the firſt blow to the Engliſh power in France. She is afterwards taken priſoner and baſely put to death.
1430 Laurentius of Haerlem invents the Art of Printing, which he practiſed with ſeparate wooden types. Gottenburg afterwards invented cut metal types. Peter Schœffer invented the mode of caſting types in matrices. But the moſt authentick accounts aſcribe the invention of Printing to Dr. Fauſt or Fauſtus, in 1444.
The ſea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
1453 Conſtantinople taken by the Turks, which utterly overthrows the Roman empire.
1454 Otto Guerick, a German, invents the air-pump.
Duelling appointed in certain caſes in France, in order to have the judgment of God.
1460 Engravings and etchings in copper invented.
1471 Decimal arithmetick invented, and the use of tangents in trigonometry introduced, by Regiomentanus.

A. C.

1483 Richard III. king of England, and laſt of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Boſworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the houſes of York and Lancaſter.

1485 Great numbers carried off by the ſweating ſickneſs.

1486 Henry eſtabliſhes fifty yeomen of the guards, the firſt ſtanding army.

1489 Maps and ſea charts firſt brought to England by Bartholomew Columbus.

1491 The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely ſubdued by Ferdinand, and become ſubjects of that prince on certain conditions; but are cruelly perſecuted by the inquiſitors.

1492 AMERICA diſcovered by Columbus.

1494 Algebra firſt known in Europe.

1497 The Portugueſe firſt ſail to the Eaſt-Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
South-America diſcovered by Americus Veſpuſius, from whom the continent unjuſtly takes its name.
North-America diſcovered by Cabot.

1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into ſix circles.
Brazil diſcovered by Cabral.

1503 Mines, uſed in the attack and defence of places, invented.

1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.—The iſland of Jamaica ſettled by Spain.

1512 Florida diſcovered.

1515 Paraguay diſcovered by the Spaniards, and ſettled by them 1535.

1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
Egypt conquered by the Turks.

1518 Magellan, in the ſervice of Spain, diſcovers the ſtraits which bear his name, makes the firſt voyage round the world, but is killed by the ſavages in the Marianne iſlands.
Republick of Geneva founded.

1520 Henry VIII. for his writings in favour of Popery, receives the title of "Defender of the Faith" from the Pope.
Chocolate firſt brought from Mexico by the Spaniards.

1529 The name of Proteſtant takes its riſe from the Reformed proteſting againſt the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.

1530 Copernicus revives the Pythagorean ſyſtem of aſtronomy.

1533 Currant trees brought into England from Zante.

1539 The firſt Engliſh edition of the Bible authoriſed; the preſent tranſlation finiſhed 1611.
About this time cannon began to be uſed in ſhips.

1540 The order of the Jeſuits eſtabliſhed by Ignatius Loyola, a Spaniard.

1543 Silk ſtockings firſt worn by the French king.
Pins firſt uſed in England; before which time the ladies uſed ſkewers.

1544 Good lands let in England at one ſhilling per acre.

1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.

1546 Intereſt of money firſt eſtabliſhed in England by law at ten per cent.
Potoſi mountain diſcovered. It emboſoms the richeſt mine in America.

1549 Brazil ſettled by the Portugueſe.

1553 Circulation of the blood through the lungs firſt publiſhed, by Michael Servetus.

1557 Groats and half groats the greateſt ſilver coin in England.

1560 John Knox effects the eſtabliſhment of the Preſbyterian religion in Scotland.
Siberia was about this time diſcovered under the reign of the Czar Ivan Baſilides.

1562 John Ribalt, with a fleet from France, diſcovers the river St. Mary—one of the rivers in the Southern American States.

1563 Knives firſt made in England.
The 39 articles of the Engliſh faith eſtabliſhed.

A. C.

1565 Potatoes first brought to Ireland from New-Spain, in America.
1569 Circulation of the blood published by Cisalpinus.
1572 The great massacre of Protestants at Paris, August 24.
1577 Sir Francis Drake sets sail on his voyage round the world—returned 1580, being the first English circumnavigator.
1579 The Dutch shake off the Spanish yoke, and the republick of Holland begins.
English East-India company incorporated—established 1600.
1581 J. Usher, Archbishop of Armagh, born in Dublin, drew up 104 articles of religion for Ireland, 1615; which were established, 1635.—Died 1656.
1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the 5th of October being counted 15.
1583 Tobacco first brought from Virginia into England—first discovered by the Spaniards in Yucatan in 1520.
1585 Davis' Straits discovered.
1587 Mary Queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years' imprisonment.
Dueling introduced into England.
1588 The Spanish Armada destroyed by Drake and other English Admirals.
Henry IV. passes the famous edict of Nantz, tolerating the Protestants.
The manufacture of paper introduced into England at Dartford.
1589 Coaches first introduced into England.
Bombs invented at Venlo.
1590 Telescopes invented by Jansen, a Dutchman.
1597 Watches first brought into England from Germany.
1600 Building with brick introduced into England by the earl of Arundel, most of the houses in London being hitherto built with wood.
1602 Decimal arithmetick invented at Bruges.
New-England discovered by Capt. Gosnold.
1603 Queen Elizabeth (the last of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI. of Scotland (and first of the Stuarts) as her successor; which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great-Britain.
1605 The gunpowder plot discovered at Westminster.
Kepler lays the foundation of the Newtonian system of attraction.
1606 Oaths of allegiance first administered in England.
1608 Henry Hudson discovers the river in New-York, which bears his name.
Galileo, of Florence, first discovers the satellites about the planet Jupiter, by the telescope then just invented in Holland.—Quebeck settled by the French.
1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris, by Ravilliac a priest.
Virginia and Newfoundland settled by the English.
Hudson's Bay discovered by Capt. Henry Hudson, who is left by his men, with seven others, to perish on that desolate coast.
1614 Napier, of Marchesston, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
The custom of powdering the hair took its rise from some ballad singers at St. Germain's fair, who powdered themselves to look the more ridiculous.
New-York and New-Jersey settled by the Dutch.
1618 New-Holland discovered by the Dutch.
1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Englishman, fully confirms the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
1620 About 100 persons (Puritans) settled at Plymouth, in Massachusetts, being the first English settlers in New-England.
1622 Nova-Scotia first settled by the Scotch.
1623 New-Hampshire settled by an English colony.
1625 The island of Barbadoes, the first English settlement in the West-Indies, is planted.

A. C.

1626 The barometer invented by Torricelli.
1627 The thermometer invented by Drebellius.
A colony of Swedes ſettled on the Delaware river, Pennſylvania.
1630 Peruvian bark firſt brought to France.
1631 Newſpapers firſt publiſhed at Paris.
1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Proteſtants in Germany, is killed.
1633 Maryland ſettled by Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman Catholicks; the Charter being granted the year before.
1635 Connecticut and Rhode-Iſland ſettled.
1638 Harvard College in Cambridge, Maſſachuſetts, eſtabliſhed.
1640 The maſſacre in Ireland, when 40,000 Engliſh Proteſtants were killed.
1642 Civil war begins in England. The firſt printing-office in New-England eſtabliſhed at Cambridge.
1644 A great maſſacre by the Indians in Virginia.
1646 Epiſcopacy aboliſhed in England.
1647 A very mortal epidemical ſickneſs prevails in New-England.
The firſt Selenographick maps made by Hevelius.
1649 An aſſociation entered into in New-England, by the Governour and Council of Maſſachuſetts againſt wearing long hair.
Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
1652 The firſt coffee-houſe in London.
The ſpeaking trumpet invented by Kircher, a Jeſuit.
1654 Cromwell aſſumes the Proteſtorſhip.
1655 The Engliſh under admiral Penn take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
1658 Cromwell dies, and is ſucceeded in the Protectorſhip by his ſon Richard.
1659 Tranſfuſion of blood firſt ſuggeſted at Oxford.
1660 King Charles II. is reſtored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
Epiſcopacy reſtored in England and Scotland.
The people of Denmark being oppreſſed by the Nobles, ſurrender their privileges to Frederick III. who becomes abſolute.
1662 The Royal Society eſtabliſhed in London by Charles II.
Pendulum clocks invented by John Fromentel, a Dutchman.
Fire engines invented.
1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 inhabitants, ſome accounts ſay more.
1666 The great fire of London began September 2, and continued five days, in which were deſtroyed 13,000 houſes and 400 ſtreets.
Tea firſt uſed in England.
Academy of ſciences eſtabliſhed in France.
1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the Engliſh the New-Netherlands, now known by the names of Pennſylvania, New-York and New-Jerſey.
1669 South-Carolina planted by an Engliſh colony, under Governour Sayle, under a patent granted by Lord Clarendon 1664.
1670 The Engliſh Hudſon's Bay Company incorporated.
1671 Academy of Architecture eſtabliſhed in France. Charleſton (S. C.) founded.
1672 Lewis XIV. overruns great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their ſluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their ſettlements in the Eaſt-Indies.
African company eſtabliſhed.
1673 St. Helena taken by the Engliſh.
1675 Coffee houſes ſhut up by proclamation, as encouragers of ſedition.
1676 Repeating clocks and watches invented by Barlow.
1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act paſſed.
1679 Darkneſs at London, that one could not read at noon-day, January 13.

A. C.

1679 New-Hampshire, which had been hitherto as under the same jurisdiction with Massachusetts, erected into a separate government.

1680 A great comet appeared, and continued visible from Nov. 3 to March 9.
William Penn receives a patent for Pennsylvania, March 4th—and grants a charter to adventurers 1682.

1682 College of Physicians at Edinburg incorporated.
Royal Academy established at Nismes.

1683 William Penn purchases from James Duke of York, that part of the New-Netherlands now known by the name of "the State of Delaware."—Philadelphia began to be built.—India stock sold from 360 to 500 *per cent.*

1685 The edict of Nantz infamously revoked by Lewis XIV. and the Protestants cruelly persecuted.

1688 The revolution in Great-Britain begins, Nov. 5. King James abdicates the throne and retires to France, December 3, following.

1689 King William and Queen Mary, daughter and son in law to James II. are proclaimed, Feb. 16.
The land tax passes in England.
The toleration act passes in do.

1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muskets first used by the French.—The dutchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.—Bank of England established by king William.—The first publick lottery was drawn this year—Stamp duties instituted in England.

1695 Bank of Scotland established.

1696 The peace of Ryswick.

1697 Malt tax established.
The debt of Great-Britain was about *five millions* sterling.—In 1790 it was 270 *millions.*

1699 The Scots settled a colony at the Isthmus of Darien, in America, and called it Caledonia.

1700 Charles XII. of Sweden, begins his reign
Yale college established at Saybrook, Connecticut—removed to New-Haven 1716.

1701 Prussia erected into a kingdom.
Cottonian library settled for publick benefit.
Society for the propagation of the Gospel in foreign parts established.

1702 King William dies, aged 50, and is succeeded by Queen Anne, daughter to James II. who with the emperor and States General, renews the war, against France and Spain.

1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards by the combined fleets of Britain and Holland under admiral Rooke, July 23.
The battle of Blenheim, won by the duke of Marlborough and allies against the French.
The Court of Exchequer instituted in England.

1706 England and Scotland united under the name of "The Kingdom of Great-Britain," June 22.

1707 The first British parliament meet, October 24.
The French invade Carolina, but are repulsed with great loss.

1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by General Stanhope.
Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.

1709 Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy, defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa, who flies to Turkey.
North-Carolina began to be settled by a number of indigent Palatines.

1710 Queen Anne changes the Whig ministry for others more favourable to the interest of her brother, the late Pretender.
The cathedral church of St. Paul, London, rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren, in 37 years, at the expense of one million (4,440,000 dollars) paid by a duty on coals.

A. C.

1710 Port Royal was taken by the New-England colonies.
Poſt Office firſt eſtabliſhed in America by act of the Britiſh Parliament.

1713 The peace of Utrecht, whereby Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, New-Britain, and Hudſon's Bay in North-America, were yielded to Great-Britain: Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were alſo confirmed to the ſaid crown by this treaty.

1714 Queen Anne dies, at the age of 50, and is ſucceeded by George I.
Intereſt reduced to five per cent. in England.

1715 Lewis XIV. dies, and is ſucceeded by his great grandſon Lewis XV.
The rebellion in Scotland begins in September, under the Earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriffmuir, and the ſurrender of Preſton, both in November, when the rebels diſperſe.
A general riſing of the Indians againſt South-Carolina.

1716 Aurora Borealis firſt taken notice of in England—1719 in New-England.
An act paſſed for ſeptennial parliaments.

1719 The Miſſiſippi ſcheme at its height in France.
Lombe's ſilk throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby; takes up one eighth of a mile; one water wheel moves the reſt; and in 24 hours it works 318,504,960 yards of organzine ſilk thread.
The South Sea ſcheme in England begun April 7, was at its height at the end of June, and quite ſunk about September 29.

1727 King George dies in the 68th year of his age, and is ſucceeded by his only ſon, George II.
Inoculation firſt tried on criminals with ſucceſs.
Ruſſia, formerly a dukedom, is now eſtabliſhed as an empire.

1728 North-Carolina ſettled about this time by the Engliſh.

1731 The firſt perſon executed in Britain for forgery.

1732 Kouli Khan uſurps the Perſian throne, conquers the Mogul empire and returns with two hundred and thirty-one millions ſterling.
GEORGE WASHINGTON, Preſident of the United States of America, born, February 22, O. S.
Several publick ſpirited gentlemen begin the ſettlement of Georgia, the moſt ſouthern of the United States of America.

1737 The earth proved by admeaſurement, to be flatted towards the poles.

1738 Weſtminſter bridge conſiſting of fifteen arches, begun; finiſhed in 1750, at the expenſe of 389,000l. defrayed by Parliament.

1739 Letters of marque iſſued out in Britain againſt Spain, July 21, and war declared, October 23.

1742 A Spaniſh fleet of 32 ſail, with more than 3000 men, invaded Georgia, but were repulſed.

1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the Engliſh and allies, in favour of the Queen of Hungary.

1744 War declared againſt France by Britain.
Commodore Anſon returns from his voyage round the world.

1745 The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the Duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
Indigo, diſcovered in South-Carolina.
Louiſburg captured by the New-Englanders.

1746 Britiſh linen Company erected.
Electrick ſhock diſcovered.
Lima and Callao ſwallowed up by an earthquake, October 20. This earthquake continued till November 20th, and deſtroyed 50,000 perſons.
New-England providentially delivered from the meditated deſtruction of the French.

A. C.

1748 The peace of Aix la Chapelle, by which a reſtitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all ſides.
Halifax, in Nova-Scotia, built.
1749 The intereſt of the Britiſh funds reduced to three per cent.
1750 The Britiſh Parliament paſs an act prohibiting any ſlitting mill or forge, or any iron works in America, June.
1752 Antiquarian Society at London incorporated.
1751 The new ſtyle introduced into Great-Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.
Adrianople deſtroyed by an earthquake.
1753 The Britiſh Muſeum erected at Montague Houſe.
Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, inſtituted in London.
1754 A Congreſs met at Albany, (New-York) when Dr. Franklin propoſes a plan for the union of all the colonies.
Sept. 2. Grand Cairo had 40,000 inhabitants deſtroyed by an earthquake.
King's (now Columbia) College (N. Y.) founded.
1755 Liſbon, in Portugal, deſtroyed by an earthquake.
1756 One hundred and forty-ſix Engliſhmen are confined in the black hole at Calcutta, in the Eaſt-Indies, by order of the Nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.
1757 Identity of electrick fire and lightning diſcovered by Dr. Franklin, who thereupon invented a method of ſecuring buildings from thunder ſtorms, by metallick conductors.
1758 Fort du Queſne (now Pittſburg) taken from the French by General Forbes, February 28.
1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebeck, which is gained by the Engliſh, and General Montcalm is ſlain.
1760 Black Friar's bridge, conſiſting of nine arches, begun; finiſhed 1770, at the expenſe of 152,840l. to be diſcharged by a toll.
George II. dies, and is ſucceeded by George III.
1762 War declared againſt Spain.
Peter III. Emperor of Ruſſia, is depoſed, impriſoned, and murdered.
1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great-Britain, France and Spain, and Portugal concluded at Paris, February 10, which confirmed to Great-Britain the extenſive provinces of Canada, Eaſt and Weſt-Florida, and part of Louiſiana, in North-America; alſo the iſlands of Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, in the Weſt-Indies.
1764 The Parliament granted 10,000l. to Mr. Harriſon, for his diſcovery of the longitude by his time-piece.
College at Providence (R. I.) founded.
1765 George III's royal charter paſſed for incorporating the ſociety of artiſts.
The famous ſtamp act paſſed in the Britiſh Parliament, March 22. Repealed March 17, 1766, which occaſions great rejoicing in the colonies.
Grand Canal, adjoining the city Baſon, Dublin, begun; completed to Monaſtereven in 1786.
Otaheite Iſland diſcovered.
1766 A great ſpot paſſed the ſun's centre.
Gibraltar almoſt deſtroyed by a ſtorm.
1768 Academy of painting eſtabliſhed in London.
The Turks impriſon the Ruſſian Ambaſſador, and declare war againſt that empire.
1769 Electricity of the Aurora Borealis diſcovered by Wideburg, at Jena.
Dartmouth College founded, New-Hampſhire.
1770 Maſſacre at Boſton, March 5.

A. C.

1771 Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks, in his Majeſty's ſhip the Endeavour, Lieutenant Cook, return from a voyage round the world, having made ſeveral important diſcoveries.

1772 The king of Sweden changes the conſtitution of that kingdom.

Twelve hundred and forty people killed in the iſland of Java by an electrified cloud.

A revolution in Denmark.

The Emperor of Germany, Empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Pruſſia, ſtrip the King of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themſelves, in violation of the moſt ſolemn treaties.

1773 Captain Phipps is ſent to explore the North Pole; but having made eighty-one degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and returns.

The Jeſuits expelled from the Pope's dominions, and ſuppreſſed by his bull.

The Engliſh Eaſt-India Company having, by conqueſt or treaty, acquired the extenſive provinces of Bengal, Orixa and Bahar, containing fifteen millions of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their ſervants abroad, upon which the Britiſh government interferes, and ſends out judges, &c.

The war between the Ruſſians and Turks proves diſgraceful to the latter, who loſe the iſlands in the Archipelago, and by ſea are every where unſucceſsful.

Tea, 340 cheſts, deſtroyed at Boſton.

1774 Peace proclaimed between the Ruſſians and Turks.

The Britiſh Parliament having paſſed an act, laying a duty of three pence per pound upon all teas imported into America; the colonies, conſidering this as a grievance, deny the right of the Britiſh Parliament to tax them.

Boſton Port Bill paſſed, March 25.

Deputies from the ſeveral American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the firſt general Congreſs, October, 26.

Firſt petition of Congreſs to the King, November.

1775 April 19. The firſt action happens in America between the Britiſh troops and the Americans, at Lexington, in which the former are defeated.

Ticonderoga and Crown Point taken by Colonels Allen and Eaſton.

A dreadful fire in Grenada; loſs computed at 500,000l.

Articles of confederation and perpetual union agreed on by the American Colonies, May 20.

Paper money emitted by Congreſs to the amount of three millions of dollars, and afterwards, at different periods, during the war, to the amount of two hundred millions. In 1781 it ceaſes to circulate.

General George Waſhington is by Congreſs unanimouſly appointed commander in chief of the American army, June, 16; on July 2d arrives at Cambridge, Maſſachuſetts, and takes upon him the command.

A bloody battle fought at Bunker's Hill between the King's troops and the Americans, when the latter being overpowered by numbers are forced to retreat, June 17. Charleſtown burnt the ſame day.

Poſt office eſtabliſhed by Congreſs, July 26.

Falmouth, in the Diſtrict of Maine, deſtroyed by the Britiſh, Oct. 18.

General Montgomery takes Montreal, November 12.

An unſucceſsful attack made by the Americans on Quebeck, when the gallant Montgomery is ſlain, December 31.

1776 Norfolk, in Virginia, burnt by order of Lord Dunmore, and great damage ſuſtained, January 1.

A. C.

1776 Boſton evacuated by the Britiſh, March 17.

Congreſs, in conſequence of the repeated provocations, which the colonies had received from Britain, declare themſelves free, ſovereign and independent, under the name of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, July 4.

The battle of Flatbuſh, in Long-Iſland, when the Americans are defeated with the loſs of 2000 men killed, and 1000 priſoners; in conſequence of which they are obliged to retreat, and New-York is ſoon after taken poſſeſſion of by the Britiſh, Auguſt 27.

Fort Waſhington, ſtate of New-York, with 2000 priſoners, taken by the Britiſh, November 16.

Fort Lee, in the ſame State, taken, November 18.

Rhode-Iſland taken by the Britiſh, December 6.

Nine hundred Heſſians taken by General Waſhington, at Trenton, December 26.

Religious toleration was granted in Auſtria.

1777 January 2. General Waſhington defeats the Britiſh at Princeton, who loſe 300 men. On the ſide of the Americans, the brave General Mercer is among the ſlain.

Great devaſtations committed by the Britiſh under General Tryon, between Fairfield and Norwich, and at Danbury, in Connecticut. They are, however, attacked in their retreat by Generals Arnold, Wooſter and Sullivan, and defeated with the loſs of 300 men, April 26.

Ticonderoga evacuated by General St. Clair, July 6.

Marquis De la Fayette appointed Major-General in the American army, July 31.

Eſopus, in New-York, with great quantities of ſtores, deſtroyed by the Britiſh, October 15.

The battle of Brandywine, when the Americans, under the command of General Waſhington, are defeated with the loſs of twelve hundred men killed, wounded and priſoners, September 11.

The Britiſh forces, commanded by General Howe, take poſſeſſion of Philadelphia.

The battle of Germantown, when the Americans are defeated, Oct. 4.

Lieutenant-General Burgoyne is obliged, at Saratoga, to ſurrender his whole army, conſiſting of 5,790 men, to the Americans, under Generals Gates, Lincoln and Arnold, October 17.

The American army, under Gen. Waſhington, retire to winter quarters at Cherry Valley, where they ſuffer ſeverely from famine and want of clothing, December.

1778 A Treaty of Amity and Commerce concluded at Paris between France and the United States, in which the independence of the latter is acknowledged, February 6.

Sir Henry Clinton arrives at Philadelphia and ſuperſedes Sir William Howe, May 8.

In the beginning of June, the Earl of Carliſle, William Eden, and George Johnſtone, arrived at Philadelphia, as commiſſioners for reſtoring peace between Britain and America; but Congreſs refuſe to treat with them, unleſs the Independence of America is acknowledged, or the King's fleets and armies withdrawn.

Hoſtilities commence between France and Britain, June.

Philadelphia evacuated by the Britiſh, June 18.

The battle of Monmouth, when the Britiſh are defeated by the Americans, under General Waſhington, June 28.

A French ſquadron, conſiſting of 12 ſhips of the line, under the command of Count D'Eſtaing, arrives in the Delaware, July 9.

A. C.

1778 Sieur Gerard, the firſt ambaſſador from France to the United States, is introduced to Congreſs, Auguſt 6.

Dominica taken by the French, September 7.

St. Lucia taken from the French, December 28.

1779 Savannah, in Georgia, taken by the Britiſh, under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell, when the greateſt part of that ſtate again comes under the Britiſh dominion, January.

General Aſh, with 1500 Americans is ſurpriſed in Georgia by General Provoſt, when 150 of his men were ſlain, and 162 made priſoners, May 3.

The Spaniards unite with France and America againſt Britain, June.

St. Vincent taken from the French by the Engliſh, June 17.

A predatory expedition, under the command of Governour Tryon, ſets out for Connecticut; the party ſets fire to Fairfield and Eaſt-Haven; plunders New-Haven, and commits many other enormities, in July.

Stony Point taken by the Americans under the command of General Wayne, when the Britiſh loſe 63 men killed, and 543 men taken priſoners, July 15.

Count D'Eſtaing and General Lincoln attempt to ſtorm Savannah, in Georgia, but are repulſed with great loſs, September 1.

1780 Admiral Rodney, with a great ſuperiority of force, engages a Spaniſh fleet under Admiral Langara, takes five ſhips of the line, drives one aſhore, and another is blown up, January 18.

A remarkable *dark* day in New-England, May 19.

Penſacola and the whole province of Weſt-Florida ſurrenders to the arms of the King of Spain, May 9.

Charleſton, South-Carolina, ſurrenders to the Britiſh, and the garriſon, conſiſting of 2,500 men, becomes priſoners of war, May 12.

The Proteſtant Aſſociation, to the number of 50,000 men, headed by Lord George Gordon, go to the Houſe of Commons with a petition for the repeal of an act paſſed in favour of the Roman Catholicks, June 2. This event is followed by the deſtruction of Catholick chapels, ſeveral priſons, and the moſt daring riots for ſeveral ſucceeding days, which are at laſt quelled by the interpoſition of the military; when numbers of the mob are killed, and many of the rioters ſoon after tried and executed.

July 19. A maritime treaty between Ruſſia, Sweden and Denmark was ſigned at Copenhagen, having for its object the protection of neutral commerce.

Count Rochambeau arrives at Rhode-Iſland with 6000 land forces, July 10.

Cornwallis obtains a ſignal victory over General Gates, near Camden, in South-Carolina; when the American army is totally defeated, and upwards of one thouſand made priſoners, Auguſt 16.

Torture aboliſhed in France, Auguſt 25.

American Academy of Arts and Sciences inſtituted in Maſſachuſetts.

Henry Laurens, formerly Preſident of Congreſs, who had been ſent to negociate a Treaty with Holland, is taken by the Veſtal frigate, near Newfoundland, September 3; and on October 4, following, is committed cloſe priſoner to the tower of London.

Dreadful hurricanes in the Weſt-Indies, by which great damage is occaſioned at Jamaica, Barbadoes, and other iſlands, October 3 and 11.

General Arnold, after having in vain attempted to deliver up Weſt-Point to the Britiſh, deſerts to their ſervice, and is by them appointed Brigadier-General, September 26.

Major Andre, Adjutant-General to the Britiſh army, is hanged as a ſpy at Tappan, ſtate of New-York, October 2.

A. C.

1780 The battle of King's Mountain, South-Carolina, in which the American militia under Colonel M'Dowell defeat the Britiſh, and take 800 priſoners, October 7.

The Britiſh government declares war againſt Holland, December 10.

1780 and 1781. This winter is remarkable for its uncommon ſeverity; ſo that in January the paſſage between New-York and Staten Iſland is practicable for the heavieſt cannon.

1781 The battle of Cowpens, in South-Carolina, when the Americans, under General Morgan, defeat the Britiſh, under Tarleton. The Britiſh loſe 300 killed, and 600 priſoners, January 17.

The Dutch iſland of St. Euſtatia taken by the Britiſh, February 3; retaken by the French, November 27.

Lord Cornwallis obtains a victory over the Americans, under General Green, at Guilford court-houſe, in North-Carolina, March 15.

A bloody battle is fought at Camden, between Gen. Green and Lord Rawſon, when the Americans are repulſed, April 25.

The iſland of Tobago taken by the French, June 2.

Count de Graſſe, with 28 ſail of the line, arrives in the Cheſapeak and lands 3,200 forces, which join thoſe already under La Fayette, Auguſt 30.

The battle of the Eutaw Springs, in South-Carolina, when the Britiſh are defeated by the Americans, under Gen. Green, with the loſs of 1100 men, Sept. 9.

New-London burnt by the Engliſh, under Gen. Arnold, Sept. 13.

Treaty of amity and commerce between America and Holland, Oct. 8.

Earl Cornwallis ſurrenders his whole army, conſiſting of 7,000 men, to the American and French army, under the command of Gen. Waſhington, at Yorktown, in Virginia, October 19.

Henry Laurens is releaſed from his long confinement in the Tower of London, December 31.

1782 Planet Herſchel diſcovered.

The firſt impreſſion of the Bible in the United States is publiſhed by Robert Aitken, Philadelphia.

The iſland of Minorca taken by the Spaniards, February 5.

St. Chriſtopher's taken by the French, February 12.

Montſerrat, in the Weſt-Indies, taken by the French, February 18; reſtored to the Engliſh, at the peace, 1783.

The Britiſh Houſe of Commons addreſs the king againſt the further proſecution of offenſive war with North-America, March 4.

Admiral Rodney defeats the French under Count de Graſſe, near Dominica, and takes five ſhips of the line, with the French Admiral, April 12.

Holland acknowledges the ſovereignty of the United States, April 19.

Sir Guy Carleton arrives at New-York, with powers to treat of peace with the Americans, May 5.

The French take and deſtroy the forts and ſettlements in Hudſon's Bay, Auguſt 24.

The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, when their floating batteries are deſtroyed, September 13.

Treaty concluded between the United States and the Republick of Holland, October 8.

Proviſional articles of peace ſigned between the American and Britiſh Commiſſioners at Paris; by which the United States are declared by the king of Britain, to be free, ſovereign and independent, Nov. 30.

The inquiſition aboliſhed at Naples.

1783 Preliminary articles of peace, between France, Spain and Britain, ſigned at Verſailles, Jan. 20.

Armiſtice between Britain and Holland, February 10.

A. C.

1783 Three earthquakes at Calabria Ulterior and Sicily; which deſtroy a great number of towns and inhabitants; February 5, 7 and 28.

Treaty of Amity and Commerce between the United States and Sweden, concluded April 1, ratified by Congreſs Sept. 25, following.

New-York evacuated by the Britiſh troops, and General Waſhington makes a publick entry into that city, November 25.

General Waſhington reſigns his commiſſion to Congreſs, at Annapolis, December 23.

Dickinſon College (Carliſle Penn.) founded.

1784 The definitive treaty of peace between the United States and Britain, ratified by Congreſs, January 4.

M. Lunardi aſcends in a balloon from London; being the firſt attempt of the kind made in England, September 15.

1785 Mr. James Madiſon brings forward a motion in the Houſe of Delegates of Virginia, to appoint commiſſioners, who, in concurrence with others, to be appointed by the different ſtates, ſhould form a ſyſtem of commercial regulations, to be recommended for adoption to the different ſtate legiſlatures.

Friars and nuns ſuppreſſed in Germany.

1786 An inſurrection breaks out in the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts, under Shays and others; it is, however, happily ſuppreſſed by the prudence and deciſion of Generals Lincoln and Shepard, with the loſs of very few lives, December.

Louis XVI. iſſues an edict for convening the *notables*, who afterwards meet at Paris, February 26, and December 29, following.

1787 The Federal Convention, which had for ſome time been aſſembled t Philadelphia, report to the different ſtates the New Conſtitution, or preſent ſyſtem of federal government, September 17.

Franklin College (Lancaſter Penn.) founded.

1788 George Waſhington was unanimouſly elected Preſident of the United States, and John Adams, Vice-Preſident.

Georgia Univerſity inſtituted.

1789 Congreſs met at New-York for the firſt time under the New Conſtitution, March 4.

April 30. George Waſhington was, in due form, publickly inveſted with the office of Preſident of the United States of America.

The National Aſſembly of France firſt convened, May 5, and on the 17th of June following the *tiers etat*, or repreſentatives of the people, after uſing various efforts to obtain a union with the clergy and nobility, without ſucceſs, declare themſelves the General Aſſembly, and proceed to buſineſs.

They take an oath "never to ſeparate till the conſtitution ſhall be completed," June 20th.

Univerſity of North-Carolina founded.

The Marquis De la Fayette appointed commander of the national guards.

The Baſtile, in Paris, taken by the national guards; when the governour and other of the principal officers are, on account of their perfidy, killed by the populace, July 14.

1790 The French king *voluntarily* appears before the National Aſſembly, and declares "that he will defend the new conſtitution to the laſt moment of his exiſtence," February 4.

Friars and Nuns ſuppreſſed in France.

A grand confederation takes place at the *Champ de Mars*, in Paris, in commemoration of the capture of the Baſtile, July 14.

General Harmar defeated by the Miami Indians, with the loſs of 183 men killed, and 31 wounded, September 30.

1791 This year a cenſus taken of the inhabitants of the United States, when the number is found to be 3,929,326.

A. C.

1791 The king of France and family privately depart from Paris, with a view, as was believed, of entering into Germany, and levying war against the nation, June 20; are intercepted, near Varennes, and re-conducted to Paris on the 25th.

Seven islands discovered in the South Pacifick Ocean, between the Marquesas and the Equator, by Capt. Joseph Ingraham, of Boston.

May 3. The crown of Poland was made hereditary.

First Folio and Royal Quarto Bibles printed in America, at Worcester, Massachusetts; small Quarto at Trenton, New-Jersey.

A Treaty is concluded at Pilnitz, in Saxony, by a number of crowned heads, of which the partition of France, Poland, &c. is said to have been the principal object, July.

Gen. St. Clair defeated by the Indians, near the Miami Village, with the loss of 640 Americans, his whole baggage, and eight pieces of artillery, November 4.

1792 The French National Assembly declare war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, April 20.

An immense multitude break into the palace of the Thuilleries, to induce the king to withdraw his constitutional *veto* from a decree pronounced by the assembly against the priests. This, however, he refuses, June 20.

The king of France announces to the National Assembly, that the king of Prussia has joined the confederation against that country, and is marching on with an army of 52,000 men, July 6.

The Duke of Brunswick publishes his manifesto against the French Republick, July 25.

A dreadful massacre takes place in the palace of the Thuilleries, when almost the whole of the Swiss guards are slain, August 10. The same day the functions of the king are suspended, and a convention summoned to meet on September 20, following.

The marquis de la Fayette, after having in vain attempted to prevail on his soldiers to restore their deposed monarch, leaves the army, is taken in Liege, (then a neutral country) and, contrary to the law of nations, made prisoner of war, August 19.

A dreadful massacre takes place at the different State prisons in Paris, when one thousand and eighty-four persons are slain, Sept. 2 and 3.

The National Assembly declare war against the king of Sardinia, September 16; and Montesquiou, the French General, in less than a month, makes himself master of the whole country of Savoy.

The combined armies are defeated by General Dumourier, and afterwards make a very rapid retreat from the confines of France, Sept. 29

The French Convention meet and pronounce "The eternal abolition of royalty in France," September 20.

The celebrated battle of Gemappe, when the French, under Dumourier, route their enemies in all quarters, November 5. Mons, Brussels, &c. are soon after captured by the conquerors.

Louis XVI. brought to trial, December 11; condemned January 19, 1793, and beheaded on the 21st of the same month.

1793 The French Convention declare war against the King of Britain and the Stadtholder of Holland, February 1.

The King of Sweden is shot at a masquerade, by Capt. Ankerstrom, March 16, and dies of his wounds the 29th of the same month.

A bloody battle fought between the combined armies and General Dumourier in the plain of Neuingen; when the French are defeated with great loss, March 20. After this, the Netherlands, which were so rapidly overrun by the French, are as speedily retaken by the enemy.

A. C.

1793 The commissioners dispatched to arrest Dumourier, are sent over by him to the Austrian General, as hostages for the safety of the Queen and royal family of France. The General, after having in vain attempted to prevail on his men to re-establish monarchy, deserts the republican cause, and with difficulty escapes to the enemy, April 2.

A dreadful disorder known by the name of the *yellow fever*, begins at Philadelphia, in July; and does not cease its depopulating ravages till the middle of November, following, during which time about 5000 people lose their lives.

A formidable union against the new government of France takes place under the name of *Confederate Republicanism*, between the cities of Marseilles, Lyons and Toulon. The two former are in June and July subjected to the authority of the Convention; but Toulon surrenders to the English admiral, Lord Hood, who takes possession of the town and shipping in the name of Louis XVII. August 29.

The late Queen of France beheaded, October 16.

Brissot de Warville and 21 other members of the National Convention are beheaded, October 30.

The King of Britain issues orders to the commanders of ships of war and privateers to bring in, for legal adjudication, all vessels carrying any supplies to, or any produce from any French colony; in consequence of which order, many American vessels are piratically captured, November 6.

1794 New orders are issued by the British government, with respect to the capture of American vessels; by which those of the 6th November are repealed, January 8.

An act passed by Congress for fitting out a naval armament against the the Algerines, to consist of four 44 gun frigates and two of 36, March 10. This number has since been reduced to three.

A bill passed by Congress, enjoining an embargo for 30 days, which is afterwards continued for 30 more, March 26.

John Jay, Chief Justice of the United States, appointed envoy extraordinary to Britain, April.

The island of Guadaloupe taken from the British by the French, with a very inferior force, June 3.

Discontents, which had arisen in the counties of Alleganv, Washington, Fayette and Westmoreland, in Pennsylvania, relative to the excise law, in the beginning of 1791, break out into an open insurrection in the month of August, of this year; but, by the prudence of the President of the United States, and the good conduct of the militia, who, at his call, readily step forth in support of the violated laws of their country, order is happily restored without bloodshed.

Union College (at Schenectady, N. Y.) founded.

Robespierre and a number of his associates guillotined, July 27.

General Anthony Wayne, Commander in Chief of the American forces, totally defeats the Indians and Canadian militia near the rapids of the Miami of the lakes, and near to a British fort, August 20.

The suburb of Praga, near *Warsaw*, taken by the Russian General Suwarrow, who gives the barbarous orders to his army to give quarters to no one; in consequence of which, upwards of 30,000 Poles, men, women and children, are massacred, November 4.

A treaty of amity, commerce and navigation negociated and signed at London, by Hon. John Jay, Esq. between the United States and Great-Britain, November 19. Ratified by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, August 24, 1795, and by the king of Great-Britain, October 8, following. Published by authority in the United States, Feb. 10, 1796.

A. C.

1795 The Dutch ſtadtholder, being no longer able to reſiſt the progreſs of the French, evacuates his government, and retires to England, January 16.

After ſeveral battles fought between the French and the combined forces of Auſtria, Pruſſia and England, (the Dutch making little or no reſiſtance) the French troops arrive at Amſterdam, where they are received by the inhabitants with every demonſtration of joy, January 18.

The old government of the Dutch aboliſhed, and a revolution in favour of liberty commences without any publick commotion, January 19.

St. Lucia captured by the French, April 19.

The King of Pruſſia concludes a ſeparate peace with the French Republick, April.

The whole body of French Emigrants completely defeated at *Quiberon*, July 21.

The navigation of the Scheldt declared free, Auguſt 12.

The French Convention declared the acceptance of the New Conſtitution by the people, September 22.

Peace proclaimed at *Hanover* between the Elector and the French Republick, September 29.

The incorporation of the Belgick Provinces with France, decreed by the Convention, September 30.

A treaty of friendſhip, limits and navigation, concluded between Spain and the United States, October 20. Ratified and publiſhed by the Preſident, March, 1796.

The Executive Directory of France inſtalled at the little Luxemburg in Paris, November 3.

A treaty of peace and amity concluded between the Dey of Algiers and the United States, November 8. Ratified and publiſhed by the Preſident, March 7, 1796.

The unfortunate King of Poland made a formal ſurrender of his crown, for a penſion, November 25.

The French Legiſlature decreed a forced loan of 600,000,000 livres in ſpecie, December 10.

1796 The Executive Directory of France paſſed a decree for ſhutting up various clubs, viewing them as dangerous to freedom, February 27; an abridgment of the liberty of the preſs is ſeriouſly contemplated, for the ſame reaſon.

The Preſident of the United States, having been requeſted by the Houſe of Repreſentatives, "to lay before them a copy of the inſtructions to the miniſter of the United States (Mr. Jay) who negociated the treaty with Great-Britain, together with the correſpondence and other documents relative to that treaty, excepting ſuch of the ſaid papers as any exiſting negociation may render improper to be diſcloſed," replied, by meſſage, that "as it was perfectly clear to his underſtanding, that the aſſent of the Houſe of Repreſentatives is not neceſſary to the validity of a treaty; as the treaty with Great-Britain exhibits in itſelf all the objects requiring legiſlative proviſion, and on which the papers called for can throw no light; and as it is eſſential to the due adminiſtration of the government that the boundaries fixed by the conſtitution between the different departments ſhould be preſerved,—a juſt regard to the conſtitution and to the duty of his office under all the circumſtances of the caſe, *forbid a compliance with their requeſt*," March 30.

The ſupplies neceſſary to carry into effect the treaty with Great-Britain, voted by the Houſe of Repreſentatives, *without the papers*, after much debate, and agitation of the publick mind, April 30.

1797 A ſignal victory gained over the Spaniſh fleet by Sir John Jarvis, now Lord St. Vincents, Feb. 14.

A. C.

1797 JOHN ADAMS, elected President of the United States, and THOMAS JEFFERSON, Vice President, were, in due form, invested with their respective offices, March 4th.

An alarming mutiny on board the channel fleet, at Spithead, (England) April 15, and at Sheerness.—*Parker*, the leader of the mutiny, executed, June 30.

Messrs. Pinckney, Marshal and Gerry, sent as envoys to France, (July) to accommodate existing differences between the United States and the French Republick—Returned unsuccessful, 1798.

Lord Duncan's victory over the Dutch fleet, October 11.

Treaty of peace between Austria and France signed at Campo Formio, October 17.

1798 GEORGE WASHINGTON appointed, and accepted the commission of COMMANDER IN CHIEF OF THE ARMIES OF THE UNITED STATES, July.

Rebellion in Ireland suppressed after much bloodshed.

Lord Nelson obtained a victory over the French fleet, at Aboukir, near the mouth of the Nile, in which 9 French ships of the line were taken, and two burnt; two only escaped, who were afterwards taken, Aug. 1.

1799 The war against France recommenced by the Emperor of Germany.—The French driven from nearly all their conquests in Italy by the Austrians and Russians under Suwarrow.

Seringapatam taken by Lieutenant-General Harris, and Tippoo Sultan killed, May 4.

The directorial government abolished in France, and a new constitution framed, according to which Bonaparte is to be first consul for ten years.

The President of the United States nominated Messrs. Ellsworth, Davie, and Murray, to make a further attempt to adjust differences with the French Republick, Feb.—The envoys embarked for France Nov.

George Washington died Dec. 14, aged 67.

1800 The American envoys concluded a convention with the French Republick, which was signed at Paris, Sept. 3.

A bill for uniting Ireland with Great-Britian, signed July 2.

1801 The Maritime Treaty of 1780, between the three northern powers of Europe, was renewed, Jan.

Treaty of peace between Germany and France, signed at Luneville, Feb. 9.

The convention with France conditionally ratified by the Senate of the United States, Feb.

Spain declares war against Portugal, because Portugal had neglected and refused to make peace with France, contrary to the advice of Spain, Feb. 27.

The Legislature of Massachusetts agreed to present a respectful address to JOHN ADAMS, on the occasion of his reting from the Presidency of the United States, expressive of "the grateful and high sense the Legislature entertain of the numerous and eminent services he has rendered his country, particularly as President of the United States; and assuring him of their undiminished confidence in his character, and of an affectionate welcome into the bosom of his country," March 3.

THOMAS JEFFERSON, elected President of the United States, and AARON BURR, Vice President, agreeably to the Constitution, received the oaths of office, at Washington, March 4.

Portugal declared war against Spain, March 5.

A. C.

1801 A Revolution in the Ruſſian Cabinet. Count Raſtopſin, who had long been the favourite of the Emperor Paul I. was diſgraced and baniſhed to one of his eſtates, March 6. This revolution ſuppoſed to have been produced by French influence.

An Engliſh fleet of about 20 ſhips of the line, with frigates, fire ſhips, &c. and 3000 troops, under the command of Sir Hyde Parker and Lord Nelſon, ſailed from Yarmouth for the Baltick, March 12, and April 5, gain a victory over the Daniſh fleet before Copenhagen.

William Pitt reſigned the offices of Firſt Lord of the Treaſury, and Chancellor of the Exchequer, March 14. Mr. Addington ſucceeded him. Theſe were changes of men rather than of meaſures.

March 21. A gallant and bloody battle was fought, about four miles from Alexandria in Egypt, between the Engliſh army under the command of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, and the French under General Menou. The action laſted about ſeven hours. The killed and wounded on the part of the Engliſh amounted to about 1500, and on the part of the French to about double the number. The "Invincible Legion," conſiſting of 1300 grenadiers, who bore the "Invincible Standard" of Bonaparte, led the attack, and were every one killed. Sir Ralph Abercrombie was mortally wounded in the action, and his body was brought to London, and depoſited in the Cathedral Chapel, where a monument is erected to his memory at the publick expenſe.

Paul I. Emperor of the Ruſſias, died ſuddenly March 23; and his ſon, Alexander I. declared his ſucceſſor.

The two houſes of the Batavian Legiſlature paſſed a decree of amneſty for all offences of a political nature ſince the Revolution, with an exception againſt all Emigrants who have borne arms againſt the country, and all who were concerned in giving up the fleet, or any place entruſted to them, to the Engliſh, March 24. The occaſion of this amneſty is the peace of Luneville, in which the Independence of the Batavian Republick is recognized.

Peace between the French Republick and the King of Naples was ſigned at Florence, March 28.

A corps of 12,000 Daniſh troops, commanded by Prince Charles of Heſſe, took poſſeſſion of Hamburgh.

Oct. 1. Preliminary articles of Peace between France, Great-Britain, Spain and Holland, ſigned at London.

1802 March 25. Definitive Treaty between the above powers ſigned at Amiens, by Bonaparte, Corwallis, Azaza and Schimmelpenninck.

1803 March. The King of Great-Britain, in conſequence of the formidable military preparations in the ports of France and Holland, embodied the militia of the country.

July. War commenced between France and Great-Britain.

Oct. 11. A Treaty of peace was ſigned between the United States and the Emperor of Morroco.

1804 Dec. 3. Bonaparte crowned Emperor of France, by his Holineſs the Pope, by the title of Napoleone I. with great ſplendour. The Emperor preſented the Pope a triple crown, valued at 20,000l.

Dec. 13. Spain declared war againſt Great-Britain.

1805 March 4. Thomas Jefferſon and George Clinton, inaugurated Preſident and Vice-Preſident of the United States.

Samuel Chaſe, one of the Aſſociate Judges of the United States, having been impeached by the Houſe of Repreſentatives, and tried by the Senate, is HONOURABLY acquitted.

LIST OF ANCIENT AND MODERN LEARNED AND EMINENT MEN.

[By the Dates is implied the time when the following Writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flouriſhed is ſignified by fl.]

B. C.

907 HOMER, the firſt profane writer and Greek poet flouriſhed.
Heſiod, the Greek poet, ſuppoſed to live near the time of Homer.
884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.
600 Sappho, the Greek lyrick poeteſs, fl.
558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.
556 Æſop, the firſt Greek fabuliſt.
548 Thales, the firſt Greek aſtronomer and geographer.
497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philoſophy in Greece.
474 Anacreon, the Greek lyrick poet.
456 Æſchylus, the firſt Greek tragick poet.
435 Pindar, the Greek lyrick poet.
413 Herodotus, of Greece, the firſt writer of profane hiſtory.
407 Ariſtophanes, the Greek comick poet, fl.
Euripides, the Greek tragick poet.
406 Sophocles, ditto.
Confucius, the Chineſe philoſopher, fl.
400 Socrates, the founder of moral philoſophy, in Greece.
391 Thucydides, the Greek hiſtorian.
361 Hippocrates, the Greek Phyſician.
Democritus, the Greek philoſopher.
359 Xenophon, ditto, and hiſtorian.
348 Plato, the Greek philoſopher, and diſciple of Socrates.
336 Iſocrates, the Greek orator.
332 Ariſtotle the Greek philoſopher, and diſciple of Plato.
313 Demoſthenes, the Athenian orator, poiſoned himſelf.
288 Theophraſtus, the Greek philoſopher, and ſcholar of Ariſtotle.
285 Theocritus, the firſt Greek paſtoral poet, fl.
277 Euclid, of Alexandria, in Egypt, the mathematician, fl.
270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philoſophy in Greece.
264 Xeno, founder of the ſtoick philoſophy in Greece.
244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiack poet.
208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.
184 Plautus, the Roman comick poet.
159 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comick poet.
155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the ſtoick philoſopher.
124 Polybius, of Greece, the Greek and Roman hiſtorian.
54 Lucretius, the Roman poet.
44 Julius Cæſar, the Roman hiſtorian and commentator, killed.
Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the univerſal hiſtorian, fl.
Vitruvius, the Roman architect, fl.
43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philoſopher, put to death.
Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl.
34 Salluſt, the Roman hiſtorian.
30 Dionyſius of Halicarnaſſus, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
19 Virgil, the Roman epick poet.
11 Catullus, Tibullus and Propertius, Roman poets.
8 Horace, the Roman lyrick and ſatirick poet.

A. C.
17 Livy, the Roman hiſtorian.
19 Ovid, the Roman elegiack poet.
20 Celſus, the Roman philoſopher and phyſician, fl.
25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
33 Phædrus, the Roman fabuliſt.
45 Paterculus, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
62 Perſius, the Roman ſatirick poet.
64 Quintius Curtius, a Roman hiſtorian of Alexander the Great, fl.
Seneca, of Spain, the philoſopher and tragick poet, put to death.
65 Lucan the Roman epick poet, ditto.
79 Pliny the elder, the Roman natural hiſtorian.
93 Joſephus, the Jewiſh hiſtorian.
94 Epictetus, the Greek ſtoick philoſopher, fl.
95 Quintillian, the Roman orator and advocate.
96 Statius, the Roman epick poet.
98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
99 Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian.
104 Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatick poet.
Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epick poet.
116 Pliny the younger, hiſtorical letters.
117 Suetonius, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
119 Plutarch, of Greece, the biographer.
128 Juvenal, the Roman ſatirick poet.
140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and aſtronomer, fl.
150 Juſtin, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
161 Arrian, the Roman hiſtorian and philoſopher, fl.
167 Juſtin, of Samaria, one of the oldeſt Chriſtian authors after the apoſtles.
180 Lucian, the Roman philologer and ſatiriſt.
Marcus Aurelius Antonius, Roman emperor and philoſopher.
193 Galen, the Greek philoſopher and phyſician.
200 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, fl.
229 Dion Caſſius of Greece, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
254 Origen, a Chriſtian father of Alexandria.
Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
258 Cyprian, of Carthage, ſuffered martyrdom.
273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian.
320 Lactantius, a father of the church, fl.
336 Arius, a prieſt of Alexandria, founder of the ſect of Arians.
342 Euſebius, the eccleſiaſtical hiſtorian and chronologer.
379 Baſil, biſhop of Cæſarea.
389 Gregory Nazianzen, biſhop of Conſtantinople.
397 Ambroſe, biſhop of Milan.
415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
428 Eutropius, the Roman hiſtorian.
524 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonick philoſopher.
529 Procopius, of Cæſarea, the Roman hiſtorian.

ENGLISH, SCOTCH AND IRISH AUTHORS.

A. C.
753 BEDE, a prieſt of Northumberland; hiſtory of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
901 King Alfred; hiſtory, philoſophy, and poetry.
1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Albans; hiſtory of England.
1292 Roger Bacon, Somerſetſhire; natural philoſophy.
1308 John Fordun, a prieſt of Mernsſhire, hiſtory of Scotland.

A. C.
1403 Geoffry Chaucer, London ; the father of Engliſh poetry.
1402 John Gower, Wales ; the poet.
1535 Sir Thomas More, London ; hiſtory, politicks, divinity.
1552 John Leland, London ; lives and antiquities.
1568 Roger Aſcham, Yorkſhire ; philology and polite literature.
1572 Rev. John Knox, the Scotch reformer ; hiſtory of the church of Scotland.
1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonſhire ; hiſtory of Scotland, Pſalms of David, Politicks, &c.
1598 Edmund Spenſer, London : Fairy Queen, and other poems.
1615-25 Beaumont and Fletcher ; 53 dramatick pieces.
1616 William Shakeſpeare, Stratford ; 42 tragedies and comedies.
1617 Sir Walter Raleigh, hiſtory of the world.
1622 John Napier, of Marcheſton, Scotland ; diſcoverer of logarithms.
1623 William Camden, London ; hiſtory and antiquities.
1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London ; natural philoſophy and literature in general.
1634 Lord Chief Juſtice Coke, Norfolk ; laws of England.
1638 Ben Jonſon, London ; 53 dramatick pieces.
Joſeph Mead, B. D. diſſertations on the prophecies, and various learned and critical works.
1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk ; laws and antiquities.
1654 John Selden, Suſſex ; antiquities and laws.
1657 Dr. William Harvey, Kent ; diſcovered the circulation of the blood.
1667 Abraham Cowley, London ; miſcellaneous poetry.
1674 John Milton, London ; Paradiſe Loſt, Regained, and various other pieces in verſe and proſe.
Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, Wiltſhire ; Hiſtory of the civil wars in England.
1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen ; mathematicks, geometry and opticks.
Rev. Dr. John Lightfoot ; divinity and criticiſm.
1677 Rev. Dr. Iſaac Barrow, London ; natural philoſophy, mathematicks, and ſermons.
1680 Samuel Butler, Worceſterſhire ; Hudibras, a burleſque poem.
1685 Thomas Otway, London ; ten tragedies and comedies, with other poems.
1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks ; poems, ſpeeches, letters, &c.
1688 Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somerſetſhire ; intellectual ſyſtem.
1689 Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorſetſhire ; Hiſtory of Phyſick.
1690 Nathaniel Lee, London ; eleven tragedies.
Robert Barclay, Edinburg ; Apology for the Quakers.
1691 Hon. Robert Boyle ; natural and experimental philoſophy and theology.
Sir George M'Kenzie, Dundee ; Antiquities and Laws of Scotland.
Rev. Richard Baxter ; divinity.
1694 John Tillotſon, archbiſhop of Canterbury, Halifax ; 254 ſermons.
1697 Sir William Temple, London ; politicks and polite literature.
1699 Rev. Dr. William Bates, divinity.
1701 John Dryden, Northamptonſhire ; 27 tragedies and comedies, ſatirick poems, Virgil.
1704 John Locke, Somerſetſhire ; philoſophy, government, and theology.
1705 John Ray, Eſſex ; botany, natural philoſophy, and divinity.
1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry ; eight comedies.
1713 Ant. Aſh Cooper, Earl of Shaftſbury ; characteriſticks.
1714 Gilbert Burnet, Edinburg, biſhop of Saliſbury ; hiſtory, biography, divinity, &c.

A. C.

1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonſhire ; ſeven tragedies, tranſlation of Lucan's Pharſalia.

1719 Rev. John Flamſtead, Derbyſhire ; mathematicks and aſtronomy.
Joſeph Addiſon, Wiltſhire ; Spectator, Guardian, poems, politicks.
Dr. John Keil, Edinburg ; mathematicks and aſtronomy.

1721 Matthew Prior, London ; poems and politicks.

1724 William Wollaſton, Staffordſhire ; Religion of Nature delineated.

1727 Sir Iſaac Newton, Lincolnſhire ; mathematicks, geometry, aſtronomy, opticks.

1729 Rev. Dr. Samuel Clarke, Norwich ; mathematicks, divinity, &c.
Sir Richard Steele, Dublin ; four comedies, papers in Tattler, &c.
William Congreve, Staffordſhire ; ſeven dramatick pieces.

1732 John Gay, Exeter ; poems, fables, and eleven dramatick pieces.

1734 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Mearnſhire ; medicine, coins, politicks.

1742 Dr. Edmund Halley ; natural philoſophy, aſtronomy, navigation.
Dr. Richard Bentley, Yorkſhire ; claſſical learning, criticiſm.

1744 Alexander Pope, London ; poems, letters, tranſlation of Homer.

1746 Rev. Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin ; poems, politicks, and letters.

1747 Colin M'Laurin, Argyleſhire ; algebra, view of Newton's philoſophy.

1748 James Thomſon, Roxburgſhire ; Seaſons, and other poems, five tragedies.
Rev. Dr. Iſaac Watts, Southampton ; logick, philoſophy, pſalms, hymns, ſermons, &c.
Dr. Francis Hutcheſon, Airſhire ; ſyſtem of moral philoſophy.

1750 Rev. Dr. Convers, Middleton, Yorkſhire ; Life of Cicero, &c.
Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen ; metaphyſicks, and natural philoſophy.

1751 Henry St. John, lord Bolingbroke, Surry ; philoſophy, metaphyſicks and politicks.
Dr. Alexander Monro, Edinburg ; anatomy of the human body.

1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London ; on poiſons, plague, ſmall-pox, medicine, precepts.
Henry Fielding, Somerſetſhire ; Tom Jones, Joſeph Andrews, &c.

1755 Dr. Nathaniel Lardner, Hiſtory of the Apoſtles and Evangeliſts, writers of the New Teſtament, Credibility, &c.

1757 Colley Cibber, London ; 25 tragedies and comedies.

1761 Thomas Sherlock, biſhop of London ; 69 ſermons, &c.
Benjamin Hoadley, biſhop of Wincheſter ; ſermons and controverſy.
Samuel Richardſon, London ; Grandiſon, Clariſſa, Pamela.
Rev. Dr. John Leland, Lancaſhire ; Anſwer to Deiſtical writers.

1765 Rev. Dr. Edward Young ; Night Thoughts, and other poems, 3 tragedies.
Robert Simſon, Glaſgow ; conick ſections, Euclid, Appollonius.

1768 Rev. Lawrence Sterne ; 45 ſermons, Sentimental Journey, Triſtram Shandy.

1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnſhire ; harmonicks, and opticks.

1770 Rev. Dr. Jortin ; Life of Eraſmus, Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory and ſermons.
Dr. Mark Akenſide, Newcaſtle upon Tyne ; poems.
Dr. Tobias Smollet, Dunbartonſhire ; Hiſtory of England, novels, tranſlations.

1771 Thomas Gray, Profeſſor of Modern Hiſtory, Cambridge ; poems.

1773 Philip Dormer Stanhope, Earl of Cheſterfield ; letters.
George Lord Lyttleton, Worceſterſhire ; Hiſtory of England.

1774 Oliver Goldſmith ; poems, eſſays, and other pieces.
Zachary Pearce, biſhop of Rocheſter ; Annotations on the New Teſtament, &c.

A. C.

1775 Dr. John Hawkſworth ; eſſays.
1776 David Hume, Mearſe ; Hiſtory of England, and eſſays.
James Ferguſon, Aberdeenſhire ; aſtronomy.
1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall ; plays.
1779 David Garrick, Hereford ; plays, &c.
1779 William Warburton, biſhop of Glouceſter ; Divine Legation of Moſes, and various other works.
1780 Sir William Blackſtone, chief juſtice, London ; Commentaries on the Laws of England.
Dr. John Fothergill, Yorkſhire ; philoſophy and medicine.
James Harris, Hermes ; Philological Inquiries, and Philoſophical Arrangements.
1782 Thomas Newton, biſhop of Briſtol, Litchfield ; diſcourſes on the prophecies and other works.
Sir John Pringle, Bart. Roxboroughſhire ; Diſeaſes of the Army.
Henry Home, Lord Kaimes, Scotland : Elements of Criticiſm, Sketches of the Hiſtory of Man.
1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerkſhire ; anatomy.
Dr. Benjamin Kennicott, Devonſhire ; Hebrew Bible, diſſertations, &c.
1784 Dr. Samuel Johnſon, Litchfield ; Engliſh Dictionary, biography, eſſays, poetry, died Dec. 13, aged 71.
1785 Rev. Richard Burn, L. L. D. author of the Juſtice of Peace, Eccleſ. Law, &c. died Nov. 20.
Richard Glover, Eſq. Leonidas, Medea, &c. died Nov. 25.
1786 Jonas Hanway, Eſq. Travels, miſtellanies, died Sept. 5, aged 74.
1787 Dr. Robert Lowth, biſhop of London ; criticiſm, divinity, grammar, died Nov. 3.
Soame Jenyns, Eſq. Internal Evidence of the Chriſtian Religion, and other pieces ; died Dec. 18.
1788 James Stuart, Eſq. celebrated by the name of "Athenian Stuart ;" died Feb. 1.
Thomas Gainſborough, Eſq. the celebrated painter, died Aug. 2.
Thomas Sheridan, Eſq. Engliſh Dictionary, works on education, elocution, &c. died Aug. 14.
1789 William Julius Mickle, Eſq. Cumberland ; tranſlator of the Luſiad, died Oct. 25.
1790 Dr. William Cullen, Scotland ; Practice of Phyſick, Materia Medica, died Feb. 5.
Dr. Adam Smith, Scotland ; Moral Sentiments, Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations, died April 17.
1790 John Howard, Eſq. Middleſex : Account of Priſons, Lazarettos, &c.
Rev. Thomas Warton, B. D. poet laureat ; Hiſtory of Engliſh Poetry, poems, died April 21.
1791 Rev. Dr. Richard Price, Glamorganshire ; on Morals, Providence, Civil Liberty, Annuities, Reverſionary payments, Sermons, &c. died Feb. 19, aged 68.
Dr. Thomas Blacklock, Annandale ; poems, Conſolations from natural and revealed Religion, died July, aged 70.
1792 Sir Joſhua Reynolds, Devonſhire ; Preſident of the Royal Academy of Painting ; Diſcourſes on Painting delivered before the Academy, died Feb. 23, aged 68.
1793 Rev. Dr. William Robertſon, Principal of the Univerſity of Edinburg, and Hiſtoriographer to his majeſty for Scotland ; Hiſtory of Scotland, of the Reign of Charles V. Hiſtory of America, and Hiſto. Diſquiſition concerning India, died June 11, aged 72.
1794 Dr. George Campbell, Aberdeen ; Rhetorick, Diſſertations on Miracles.
Edward Gibbon, Eſq. Surry ; Hiſtory of the decline and and fall of the Roman Empire, died Jan. 16.

A. C.

1795 Dr. Andrew Kippis, author of Cook's Voyages, Life of Doddridge, &c.
Sir William Jones, one of the Judges of India, and Preſident of the Aſiatick Society, ſeveral law tracts, tranſlation of Iſæus, and of the Moallakat, or ſeven Arabian Poems, and many valuable papers in Aſiatick reſearches.

1796 Robert Burns, the Scotch poet, died July 21.
James Fordyce D. D. Addreſſes to young people, Sermons, &c. died Oct. 1.

1797 Edmund Burke, Eſq. Sublime and beautiful, traits on the French Revolution.

1799 W. Melmoth; Tranſlations of Pliny's and Cicero's Letters, Fitzoſborne's Letters, &c.
Lord Monboddo; origin and progreſs of language.

1800 Dr. Hugh Blair; Sermons, Rhetorick, and Belles Lettres.
Rev. William Maſon, two tragedies, Odes, &c. died April 5.
William Cowper, Poems, tranſlation of Homer, &c, died April 25.

1802 Henry Hunter, D. D. Sacred Biography, tranſlation of Lavater, St. Pierre, &c. died Oct. 27.

OTHER EUROPEAN AUTHORS.

980 AVICENNA, the Mahometan philoſopher and phyſician.

1118 Anna Commena; Alexiad or life of her father Emperor Alexias Commenus.

1206 Averroes, Cerduba, the Arabian philoſopher.

1321 Dante, Florence; poetry.

1374 Petrarch, Arezzo in Italy; poetry.

1376 Boccace, Tuſcany; the Decameron, poems, &c.

1481 Platina, Italy; Lives of the Popes, &c.

1502 Montaigne, Perigord in France; eſſays.

1509 Philip de Comines, Flanders; hiſtorical memoirs.

1517 Martin Luther, the Great Reformer, fl.
John Calvin, do. fl.

1530 Machiavel, Florence; politicks, comedies, &c.

1534 Arioſto, Lombardy; Orlando Furioſo, and five comedies.

1536 Eraſmus, Rotterdam; Colloquies, Praiſe of Folly, &c.

1540 Guicciardini, Florence; Hiſtory of Italy.

1543 Copernicus, Thorn in Pruſſia; aſtronomy.

1549 Michael de Cervantes, Saavedra Alcala in Spain; Don Quixote, &c.

1566 Hannibal Caro, Civita Nuova; poems and tranſlations.
Vida, Cremona; art of poetry, and other didactick poems.

1579 Camoens, Liſbon; the Luſiad, an epick poem.

1590 Davila, Iſle of Cyprus; hiſtory of the civil wars of France.

1595 Torquato Taſſo, Italy; Jeruſalem Delivered, an epick poem, Aminta, &c.

1605 Ulyſſes Aldrovandus, Bologna; natural hiſtory.

1608 Mendez, Caſtile; hiſtory of China. fl.

1612 Battiſta Guarini, Ferrara; the Faithful Shepherd, a paſtoral poem.

1623 Father Paul Sarpi, Venice; Hiſtory of the Council of Trent, Rights of Sovereigns and Subjects, letters, &c.

1624 John Mariana, Caſtile; Hiſtory of Spain.

1625 John Baptiſt Marino, Naples; poetry.

1627 Lewis de Congora, Cordova; poetry and plays.

1628 Francis de Malherbe, Normandy; poetry.

1630 John Kepler, Wittemberg; aſtronomy.

1635 Trajan Boccolini, Rome; ſatirical pieces, fl.

1645 Hugo Grotius; commentaries on the ſcriptures, juriſprudence.

A. C.

1646 Lewis Veliz de Guevera, Andaluſia ; comedies.
1650 Des Cartes, Touraine ; philoſophy and mathematicks.
1654 John Lewis de Balzac, Angouleme ; letters, &c.
1655 Peter Caſſendi, Provence ; aſtronomy.
1662 Paſcal, Auvergne ; Thoughts upon Religion, &c.
1673 Moliere, Paris ; comedies.
1675 James Robault, Amiens ; phyſicks.
1680 Francis, Duke of Rochefoucault, France ; maxims.
Dr. Lewis Moreri, Provence ; Hiſtorical Dictionary.
1683 Mezeray, Lower Normandy ; Abridgment of the hiſtory of France.
1684 Peter Corneille, Rouen ; thirty dramatick pieces.
1689 Dr. Bonet, Geneva ; medicine.
1692 Giles Menage, Angers ; philology, miſcellanies in verſe and proſe.
1694 Antonietta de la Garde Des Houlieres, Paris ; poetry.
Marcellus Malpighi, Bologna ; diſcovered the circulation of the ſap in plants.
Puffendorf, Upper Saxony ; juriſprudence and hiſtory.
1695 D'Herbelot, Paris ; Bibliotheque orientale.
Huygens, Hague ; mathematicks and aſtronomy.
1696 John de la Bruyere, France ; characters.
Marchioneſs de Sevigne, France ; letters.
1669 John Racine, France ; tragedies.
1703 Muſcaton, Marſeilles ; funeral orations.
1704 Bocconi, Palermo ; natural hiſtory.
Boſſuet, Dijon ; diſcourſe upon univerſal hiſtory, funeral orations, &c.
Bourdaloue, France ; Sermons.
1706 Bailet, Picardy ; Judgments of the Learned, biography, &c.
1707 Rev. James Saurin ; ſermons, tracts, fl.
1709 Thomas Corneille, brother to Peter ; tragedies.
1710 Flechier, Avignon ; ſermons, funeral orations, &c.
1712 Boileau, Paris ; ſatires, epiſtles, art of poetry ; the Lutrin &c.
Caſſini, Italy ; aſtronomy.
1715 Malebranche, Paris ; philoſophy.
1716 Francis de Salignac de la motte Fenelon, archbiſhop of Cambray, Perigord ; Telemachus, Dialogues of the Dead, Demonſtration of the Being of God, &c.
Leibnitz, Leipſick ; philoſophy, &c.
1720 Madame Dacier, France ; tranſlation of Homer, Terence, &c.
1723 Henry, Paris ; hiſtory.
Bayle, Foix ; Hiſtorical and Critical Dictionary.
1725 Rapin de Thoyras, Languedoc ; hiſtory of England.
1728 Father Daniel, Rouen ; hiſtory of France.
1735 Vertot, France ; Revolutions of Rome, Portugal, Sweden, &c.
1738 Dr. Boerhaave, Leyden ; botany, &c.
1741 Rollin, Paris ; hiſtory, Belles Lettres.
John Baptiſt Rouſſeau, Paris ; odes, epiſtles, epigrams, comedies, letters.
Le Sage, Bretany ; Gil Blas, &c.
1743 Maſſillon, France ; Sermons.
1755 Monteſquieu, Bourdeaux ; Spirit of laws, Grandeur and Declenſion of the Romans, Perſian letters, &c.
1757 Reaumur, Rochelle ; natural hiſtory of inſects.
1767 Muratori, Italy ; hiſtory, antiquities.
Metaſtaſio, Italy ; dramatick pieces, fl.
1778 Voltaire, Paris ; the Henriad, an epick poem, dramatick pieces, poetry, hiſtory, literature in general.
1788 The Count De Buffon, Paris ; natural hiſtory.
1794 Marquis de Beccaria ; Diſſertations on Crimes and Puniſhments.
1796 Abbe Raynal ; hiſtory of the Indies.

TABLE *of the Real and Imaginary Monies of America, Europe, Asia, and Africa, with the intrinsick Value of the Coin of each Country reduced to Federal Money.*

EXPLANATION.——This mark (=) signifies *equal to.* This (*) is prefixed to *imaginary money*, made use of in keeping accounts, as *pounds, shillings*, &c.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

			£.	s.	d.		D.d.c.m.
A farthing	—	—	0	0	$0\frac{1}{4}$	=	0,004$\frac{1}{6}$†
2 farthings	=	a half penny	0	0	$0\frac{1}{2}$	=	0,009$\frac{1}{2}$
2 halfpence		a penny	0	0	1		0,018$\frac{1}{2}$
4 pence		a groat	0	0	4		0,074
6 pence		a half shilling	0	0	6		0,11$\frac{1}{9}$
12 pence		a shilling	0	1	0		0,222$\frac{2}{9}$
5 shillings		a crown	0	5	0		1,10
20 shillings		a pound sterling	1	0	0		4,444$\frac{4}{9}$
21 shillings		a guinea	1	1	0		4,666$\frac{2}{3}$

IRELAND.

A farthing	—	—	0	0	$0\frac{1}{4}$	=	0,004$\frac{1}{2}$
2 farthings	=	a half penny	0	0	$0\frac{1}{2}$	=	0,008$\frac{1}{2}$
2 halfpence		*a penny	0	0	1		0,017
12 pence		*a shilling	0	1	0		0,205
65 pence		a crown	0	5	5		1,10
20 shillings		*a pound	1	0	0		4,102$\frac{1}{2}$
22$\frac{1}{2}$ shillings		a guinea	1	2	9		4,666$\frac{2}{3}$

FLANDERS AND BRABANT.

Ghent, Ostend, &c. Antwerp, Brussels, &c.

*A pening	—	—	—	=	0,001,$\frac{2}{15}$
4 peningens	=	an urche		=	0,004$\frac{4}{15}$
8 peningens		*a grote			0,008$\frac{1}{3}$
2 grotes		a petard			0,016$\frac{2}{3}$
6 petards		*a scalin			0,10
7 petards		a scalin			0,116$\frac{2}{3}$
40 grotes		*a florin			0,333$\frac{1}{3}$
17$\frac{1}{2}$ scalins		a ducat			2,035$\frac{1}{2}$
240 grotes		*a pound Flem.			2,

HOLLAND AND ZEALAND.

Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Flushing, &c.

*A pening	—	—	—	=	0,001,2
8 peningens	=	*a grote		=	0,009,7
2 grotes		a stiver			0,019,4 or
6 stivers		a scalin			0,116,4
20 stivers		a guilder			0,388
2 florins, 10 stivers		a rix dollar			1,
60 stivers		a dry guilder			1,188
3 florins, 3 stivers		a silver ducattoon			1,251
6 guilders		*a pound Flem.			2,333$\frac{1}{3}$
20 florins		a gold ducat, or ducattoon			8,
15 florins		a ducattoon, another sort, called a sovereign			6,

† The names, dime and mill, may be omitted, and the place of dimes will be the place of tens or cents.

HAMBURG. *Altona, Lubeck, Bremen, &c.*

					D.d.c.m.
*A tryling	—	—	—	=	0,000,45
2 trylings	=	*a sexling		=	0,000,91
2 sexlings		2 fening			0,001,83
12 fenings		a shilling Lub.			0,020,83
16 shillings		†a marc banco			0,333⅓
2 marcs		a sletch dollar			0,666⅔
3 marcs		a rix dollar			1,
4 marcs		2 silver ducattoon			1,333⅓
320 shillings		a pound Flem.			2,50

HANOVER. *Lunenburg, Zell, &c.*

*A fening	—	—	—	=	0,002,7
3 fenings	=	a dreyer		=	0,008,1
8 fenings		a marien			0,021,6
12 fenings		2 grosh			0,032,4
8 groshen		a half gulden			0,259,2
16 groshen		a gulden			0,518,5
32 groshen		a double gulden			1,037
4 guldens		a ducat			2,074
24 groshen		*a rix dollar			0,777,6

SAXONY AND HOLSTEIN.
Dresden, Leipsick, &c. Wismar, Keil, &c.

*An heller	—	—	—	=	0,001,35
2 hellers	=	a fening			0,002,7
6 hellers		a dreyer			0,008,1
16 hellers		a marien			0,021,6
12 fenings		a grosh			0,032,4
16 groshen		a gould			0,518,48
24 groshen		*a rix dollar			0,777,6
32 groshen		a specie dollar			1,037
4 goulds		a ducat			2,074

BRANDENBURG AND POMERANIA.
Berlin, Potsdam, &c. Stetin, &c.

*A denier	—	—	—	=	0,000,48
9 deniers	=	a polchen			0,004,32
18 deniers		a grosh			0,008,64
3 polchens		an abrass			0,012,96
20 groshen		*a marc			0,172,83
30 groshen		a florin			0,259,24
90 groshen		*a rix dollar			0,777,6
108 groshen		an albertus			0,925,88
8 florins		a ducat			2,074

COLOGN. *Mentz, Triers, Liege, Munich, Munster, Paderborn, &c.*

A dute	—	—	—	=	0,001,6
3 dutes	=	a cruitzer			0,004,8
2 cruitzers		an alb			0,009,6
3 dutes		a stiver			0,012,9
3 stivers		a plapert			0,038,8
4 plaperts		a copstuck			0,155,5
40 stivers		a guilder			0,518,48
2 guilders		a hard dollar			1,037
4 guilders		a ducat			2,074

† Accounts are kept, and invoices made in the marc banco; a marc banco = 1s. 6d. ster.
* 21. L. M. = thirty-three and a third Cents.

BOHEMIA, SILESIA AND HUNGARY.

				D.d.c.m.
A fening	—	—	=	0,002,15
2 fenings	=	a dreyer	=	0,004,30
3 fenings		a grosh		0,006,45
4 fenings		a cruitzer		0,008,6
2 cruitzers		a white grosh		0,017,2
60 cruitzers		a gould		0,518,48
90 cruitzers		*a rix dollar		0,777,6
2 goulds		a hard dollar		1,037
4 goulds		a ducat		2,074

AUSTRIA AND SWABIA.

Vienna, Trieste, &c. Augsburg, Blenheim, &c.

A fening	—	—	=	0,002,15
2 fenings	=	a dreyer		0,004,3
4 fenings		a cruitzer		0,008,6
14 fenings		a grosh		0,031,4
4 cruitzers		a batzen		0,034,4
15 batzen		a gould		0,518,48
90 cruitzers		*a rix dollar		0,777,6
2 florins		a specie dollar		1,
60 batzen		a ducat		2,074

FRANCONIA. *Frankfort, Nuremburg, Dettingen, &c.*

A fening	—	—	=	0,002,15
4 fenings	=	a cruitzer	=	0,008,6
3 cruitzers		a keyser grosh		0,025,8
4 cruitzers		a batzen		0,034,4
15 cruitzers		an ort gold		0,129,6
60 cruitzers		a gould		0,518,48
90 cruitzers		*a rix dollar		0,777,6
2 goulds		a hard dollar		1,037
240 cruitzers		a ducat		2,074

POLAND AND PRUSSIA.

Cracow, Warsaw, &c. Dantzick, Koningsberg, &c.

A shelon	—	—	=	0,002,87
3 shelons	=	a grosh	=	0,008,61
5 groshen		a coustic		0,043,2
3 coustics		a tinse		0,129,6
18 groshen		an ort		0,155,5
30 groshen		a florin		0,259,2
90 groshen		*a rix dollar		0,777,6
8 florins		a ducat		2,074
5 rix dollars		a frederic d'or		3,888

LIVONIA. *Riga, Revel, Narva, &c.*

A blacken	—	—	=	0,001,43
6 blackens	=	a grosh	=	0,008,6
9 blackens		a vording		0,012,87
2 groshen		a whiten		0,017,2
6 groshen		a marc		0,051,6
30 groshen		a florin		0,259,2
90 groshen		*a rix dollar		0,777,6
180 groshen		an albertus		1,555,2
64 whitens		a copper-plate dollar		1,10

DENMARK, ZEALAND AND NORWAY.

Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Drontheim, &c.

				D.d.c.m.
A skilling	—	—	=	0,010,4
6 skillings	=	a duggen	=	0,062,4
16 skillings		*a marc		0,166,6
20 skillings		a rix marc		0,208,3
24 skillings		a rix ort		0,25
4 marcs		a crown		0,666,6
6 marcs		a rix dollar		1,
11 marcs		a ducat		1,833,4
14 marcs		a hat ducat		2,333,3

SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.

Stockholm, Upsal, &c. Thorn, &c.

*A runstick	—	—	=	0,003,5
2 runsticks	=	a stiver		0,007,2
8 runsticks		a copper marc		0,028,8
3 copper marcs		a silver marc		0,086,4
4 copper marcs		a copper dollar		0,115,2
9 copper marcs		a caroline		0,259,2
3 copper dollars		a silver dollar		0,345,6
3 silver dollars		a rix dollar		1,037
2 rix dollars		a ducat		2,074

RUSSIA AND MUSCOVY.

Petersburg, Archangel, &c. Moscow, &c.

A polusca	—	—	=	0,002,5
2 poluscas	=	a denusca	=	0,005
2 denuscas		*a copec		0,010
3 copecs		an altin		0,030
10 copecs		a grievener		0,100
25 copecs		a polpotin		0,250
50 copecs		a poltin		0,500
100 copecs		a ruble		1,
2 rubles		a xervonitz		2,

BASIL. *Zurich, Zug, &c.*

A rap	—	—	=	0,000,8
3 raps	=	a fening	=	0,002,3
4 fenings		a cruitzer		0,009,26
12 fenings		*a sol		0,027,7
15 feuings		a coarse batzen		0,034,6
18 fenings		a good batzen		0,041,6
20 sols		*a livre		0,555,5
50 cruitzers		a gulden		0,463
108 cruitzers		a rix dollar		1,

BERN. *Lucerne, Neufchatel, &c.*

A denier	—	—	=	0,001,85
4 deniers	=	a cruitzer	=	0,007,4
3 cruitzers		*a sol		0,022,2
4 cruitzers		a plapert		0,029,6
5 cruitzers		a gross		0,037
6 cruitzers		a batzen		0,044,5
20 sols		*a livre		044,5
75 cruitzers		a gulden		0,555,5
135 cruitzers		a crown		1,

GENEVA. *Pelay, Rouse, &c.*

				Dd.c.m.
A denier	—	—	=	0,000,58
2 deniers	=	1 denier current	=	0,001,16
12 deniers		1 small sol		0,006,95
12 deniers current		1 sol current		0,013,9
12 small sols		*1 florin		0,083,4
20 sols current		*1 livre current		0,277,8
10½ florins		1 patacoon		0,875
15¾ florins		1 croisade		1,312,4
24 florins		1 ducat		2,

FRANCE.

Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.

A denier	—	—	=	0,000,77
3 deniers	=	1 liard		0,002,32
2 liards		1 dardene		0,004,63
12 deniers		1 sol		0,009,25
20 sols		*1 livre tournois		0,185,17
60 sols		1 ecu of ex.		0,55
6 livres		1 ecu		1,10
10 livres		*1 pistole		1,852
24 livres		1 louis d'or		4,444,4

PORTUGAL. *Lisbon, Oporto, &c.*

*A re	—	—	=	0,001,25
10 rez	=	1 half vintin	=	0,012,5
20 rez		1 vintin		0,025
5 vintins		1 testoon		0,125
4 testoons		1 crusade of ex.		0,50
24 vintins		1 new crusade		0,60
10 testoons		*1 milre		1,05
48 testoons		1 moidore		4,
64 testoons		1 joanese		8,

SPAIN.

Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, &c. New Plate.

A maravedie	—	—	=	0,003
2 maravedies	=	1 quartil	=	0,006
34 maravedies		1 rial		0,10
2 rials		1 pistarine		0,20
8 rials		*1 piaster		0,809
10 rials		1 dollar		1,
375 maravedies		*1 ducat of ex.		1,101,8
32 rials		*1 pistole of ex.		3,20
36 rials		1 pistole		3,60

GENOA. *Novi, St. Remo, &c.* CORSICA. *Bastia, &c.*

A denari	—	—	=	0,000,66
12 denari	=	1 soldi		0,008
4 soldi		1 chevalet		0,031,8
30 soldi		*1 lire		0,239,4
30 soldi		1 testoon		0,238,8
5 lires		1 crusade		0,796
115 soldi		*1 pezzo of ex.		0,915
6 testoons		1 genoaine		1,361,8
20 lires		1 pistole		3,18

PIEDMONT, SAVOY AND SARDINIA.

Turin, Chamberry, Cagliari, &c.

				D. dec.
A denari	—	—	=	0,001,1
3 denari	=	a quatrini	=	0,003,4
12 denari		a soldi		0,013,9
12 soldi		*a floria		0,166,6
20 soldi		*a lire		0,277,7
6 florins		a scudi		1,
7 florins		a ducattoon		1,166,6
13 lires		a pistole		3,611
16 lires		a louis d'or		4,444,4

Leghorn, Florence, &c.

A denari	—	—	=	0,000,64
4 denari	=	a quatrini		0,002,56
12 denari		a soldi		0,007,8
5 quatrini		a craca		0,012,8
8 cracas		a quilo		0,102,4
20 soldi		*a lire		0,154,3
6 lires		a piaster of ex.		0,925,9
7 lires		a ducat		1,080,2
22 lires		a pistole		3,395

ROME. *Civita Vechia, Ancona, &c.*

A quatrini	—	—	—	=	0,002,8
5 quatrini		a bayoc		=	0,013,8
8 bayocs	=	a julio			0,111,1
10 bayocs		a stampt julio			0,138,8
24 bayocs		a testoon			0,333,3
10 julios		a crown current			1,10
12 julios		*a crown stampt			1,333,3
18 julios		a chequin			2,
31 julios		a pistole			3,395

NAPLES. *Gaieta, Capua, &c.*

A quatrini	—	—	=	0,002,3
3 quatrini	=	a grain	=	0,007
10 grains		a carlin		0,074
40 quatrini		a paulo		0,098,7
20 grains		a tarin		0,148,1
40 grains		a testoon		0,296,2
100 grains		a ducat of ex.		0,740,7
23 tarins		a pistole		3,407,3
25 tarins		a Spanish pistole		3,703,5

VENICE. *Bergham, &c.*

A picoli	—	—	=	0,000,51
12 picoli	=	a soldi	=	0,006,17
6½ soldi		*a gros		0,040,1
18 soldi		a jule		0,111,1
20 soldi		*a lire		0,123,5
3 jules		a testoon		0,333,3
124 soldi		a ducat current		0,768,5
24 gros		*a ducat of ex.		0,962,8
17 lires		a chequin		2,20

TURKEY. *Morea, Candia, Cyprus, &c.*

				D d.c.m.
A mangar	—	—	—	—
4 mangars	=	an asper	=	0,002,7
3 aspers		a parac		0,011,1
5 aspers		a bestic		0,033,3
10 aspers		an ostic		0,055,5
20 aspers		a solota		0,111,1
80 aspers		*a piaster		0,222,2
100 aspers		a caragrouch		0,888,8
10 solotas		a xeriff		0,111
				2,222

PERSIA. *Ispahan, Ormus, Gombroon, &c.*

A coz	—	—	—	—
4 coz	=	a bisti	=	0,007,4
10 coz		a shahee		0,029,6
20 coz		a mamouda		0,074,06
25 coz		a larin		0,148,12
4 shahees		an abashee		0,185,15
5 abashees		an or		0,296,24
12 abashees		a bovello		1,481,3
50 abashees		*a tomond		3,555,5
				14,814,9

Bombay, Dabul, &c.

*A budgrook	—	—	—	—
2 budgrooks	=	*a ree	=	0,000,62
5 rees		a pice		0,001,25
16 pices		a laree		0,006,25
20 pices		a quarter		0,10
240 rees		a xeraphim		0,125
4 quarters		a rupee		0,30
14 quarters		a pagoda		0,50
60 quarters		a gold rupee		1,74
				7,50

COROMANDEL. *Madras, Pondicherry, &c.*

A cash	—	—	—	—
5 cash	=	a viz	=	0,000,7
2 viz		a pice		0,003,44
6 pices		a pical		0,006,87
8 pices		a fanam		0,041,25
10 fanams		a rupee		0,055
2 rupees		an English crown		0,55
36 fanams		a pagoda		1,10
4 pagodas		a gold rupee		2,
				8,

BENGAL. *Calicut, Calcutta, &c.*

A pice	—	—	—	—
4 pices	=	a fanum	=	0,002,9
6 pices		a viz		0,011,36
12 pices		an ana		0,017,36
10 anas		a fiano		0,034,72
16 anas		a rupee		0,347,2
2 rupees		a French ecu		0,55
2 rupees		an English crown		1,10
56 anas		a pagoda		1,10
				2,

CHINA. *Pekin, Canton, &c.*

				D.d.c.m.
A caxa	—	—	=	0,001,48
10 caxa	=	a candareen	=	0,014,8
10 candareens		a mace		0,148
35 candareens		a rupee		0,518
2 rupees		a dollar		1,036
70 candareens		a rix dollar		1,036
7 maces		an ecu		1,036
2 rupees		a crown		1,036
10 maces		a tale		1,48

JAPAN. *Jeddo, Meaco, &c.*

A piti	—	—	=	0,003,7
20 pitis		a mace	=	0,074
15 maces		an ounce silver		1,011
20 maces		a tale		1,479
30 maces		an ingot		2,134
13 ounces silver		an ounce gold		14,
2 ounces gold		a japenese		28,
2 japaneses		adouble		56,
21 ounces gold		*a cattee		294,

EGYPT. *Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.*

An asper	—	—	=	0,010,28
3 aspers	=	a medin		0,030,84
24 medins		an Italian ducat		0,740,7
80 aspers		*a piaster		0,888,8
30 medins		a dollar		1,
96 aspers		an ecu		1,111,1
32 medins		a crown		1,111,1
200 aspers		a sultanin		2,222,2
70 medins		a pargo dollar		2,333,3

BARBARY. *Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Una, &c.*

An asper	—	—	=	0,010,28
3 aspers	=	a medin	=	0,030,84
10 aspers		a rial old plate		0,124,9
2 rials		a double		0,249,8
4 doubles		a dollar		1,
24 medins		a silver chequin		0,556
180 aspers		a zequin		1,958
15 doubles		a pistole		1,747

MOROCCO. *Santa Cruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangier, Sallee, &c.*

A fluce	—	—	=	0,001,5
24 fluces	=	a blanquil	=	0,037
4 blanquils		an ounce		0,148,1
7 blanquils		an octavo		0,259
14 blanquils		a quarto		0,518,4
2 quartos		a medio		1,036,8
28 blanquils		a dollar		1,
56 blanquils		a zequin		2,
100 blanquils		a pistole		3,747

ENGLISH. *Jamaica, Barbadoes, &c.*

						D. d. c. m.
*A halfpenny	—	—	—	—	=	0,006,5
2 halfpence	=	*a penny			=	0,013,1
7½ pence		a bit				0,098,2
12 pence		a shilling				0,157,6
75 pence		a dollar				1,
7 shillings		a crown				1,10
20 shillings		a pound				3,166,6
24 shillings		a pistole				3,722,1
30 shillings		a guinea				4,666⅔

FRENCH. *St. Domingo, Martinico, &c.*

*A half sol	—	—	—	—	=	0,003,5
2 half sols	=	*a sol			=	0,007
7½ sols		a half scalin				0,052
15 sols		a scalin				0,104,1
20 sols		a livre				0,138,9
7 livres		a dollar				1,
8 livres		an ecu				1,083
26 livres		a pistole				3,722,1
32 livres		a louis d'or				4,445

NOTE. For the *Spanish*, *Portuguese*, *Dutch* and *Danish* dominions in *Asia*, *Africa* or the *West-Indies*, see the monies of the respective nations.

FEDERAL MONEY.

THE *Congress* of the *United States* of *America*, August 8, 1786—"*Resolved*, That the standard of the United States of America, for gold and silver, shall be eleven parts fine and one part alloy.

"That the *Money-Unit* of the United States (being, by the resolve of Congress, of the 6th of July, 1785, a Dollar) shall contain of fine silver, $357\frac{64}{100}$ grains, &c.

Note.		make one	marked	m.	c.	d.	D.	E.
10 Milles		Cent.	c.	10=1				
10 Cents		Dime.	d.	100=10	=1			
10 Dimes		Dollar.	D.	1000=100	=10	=1		
10 Dollars		Eagle.	E.	10000=1000	=100	=10	=1	

As this money proceeds in decuple, or tenfold proportion; any number of dollars, dimes, cents and milles, simply express so many dollars and decimal parts of a dollar.

Thus, 3 dollars, 4 dimes, 6 cents and 5 milles are expressed

D. d. c. m.
3 4 6 5=$3\frac{465}{1000}$ Dollars=3465 milles.

As the Dollar is the integer, unit, or whole number, and the Eagle the name of a gold coin; and the dime, cent and mille, are 10th, 100th, and 1000th parts of a dollar, the decimal point (,) separates between the dollars and dimes:

Therefore in accounts, the terms Eagle and Dime may be omitted; the place of dimes being the place of tens for cents; and the right hand figure, or place of units for Eagles, will be the place of tens for dollars.

d. c. c. E. D. d. c. D. c.
Thus—,6 9=,69 and 24 9, 7 8=249, 78

The several *Currencies* of the United States, compared with dollars and cents, are as follows.

New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, Connecticut, Virginia, Kentucky and Vermont.

D. s. c. D. s. c. D. s. d. c. D. d. c. D. d. c.
1=6=,100 $\frac{1}{2}$=3=,50 $\frac{1}{4}$=1-6=,25 $\frac{1}{8}$=9=12$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{10}$=4$\frac{1}{2}$=6$\frac{1}{4}$

New-York and *North-Carolina.*

D. s. c. D. s. c. D. s. c. D. s. c. D. d. c.
1=8=,100 $\frac{1}{2}$=4=,50 $\frac{1}{4}$=2=,25 $\frac{1}{8}$=1=,12$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{10}$=6=,6$\frac{1}{4}$

New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware and *Maryland*

D. s. d. c. D. s. d. c. D. s. d. c. D. d. c. D. d. d.
1=7-6=,100 $\frac{1}{2}$=3-9=,50 $\frac{1}{4}$=1-10$\frac{1}{2}$=,25 $\frac{1}{8}$=11$\frac{1}{4}$=,12$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{10}$=5$\frac{1}{2}$=6$\frac{1}{4}$

South-Carolina and *Georgia.*

D. s. d. c. D. s. d. c. D. s. d. c. D. d. c. D. d. c.
1=4-8=,100 $\frac{1}{2}$=2-4=,50 $\frac{1}{4}$=1-2=,25 $\frac{1}{8}$=7=,12$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{10}$=3$\frac{1}{2}$=,6$\frac{1}{4}$

THE END.

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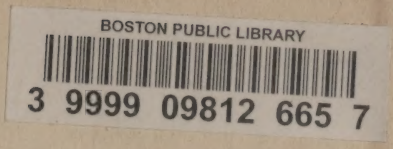
B.P.L. Bindery.
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